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ART. I. *An Essay on Sculpture:* in a Series of Epistles to John Flaxman, Esq. R. A. With Notes. By William Hayley, Esq. 4to. pp. 358. 1l. 7s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

THE productions of Mr. Hayley's Muse have afforded us many pleasing opportunities of criticism: since, whatever may be supposed by bad writers, and bad readers, (two numerous classes!) there is more satisfaction in commending a good book, than in dispraising an indifferent one; and when we meet with so much learning, sense, and temper, as are exhibited by the author before us, nothing can be more unsought, or more disagreeable, than an occasion of detecting faults.

We must indeed regret the strain of melancholy which pervades this composition, because it appears to be the result of severe domestic afflictions. To the author's own infirm state of health, which is feelingly delineated in the opening of the poem, has been added the death of a favourite son, the pupil of Mr. Flaxman, at a period when his talents were beginning to be developed, and to exhibit a fair promise of excellence. Under such circumstances, the strength of a poet is unavoidably impaired; since, as Tickell remarks in his beautiful elegy on Addison,

> " Slow comes the verse which real grief inspires:
> What mourner ever felt poetic fires?"

It is, therefore, with no common degree of sympathy, that we proceed to a more particular examination of this performance.

The first epistle congratulates Mr. Flaxman on his return from Italy; and contrasts the languishing state of the writer, and the depressing effect of indisposition, with the successful efforts of his friend during his residence at Rome:

> ' How oft, dear active friend! in listless pain,
> Thy distant invalid has wish'd in vain
> For strength, thro' Roman fanes with thee to rove;
> And pausing near the Capitolian Jove,
> In scenes with solemn inspiration fraught,
> Catch the strong impulse of inspiring thought!
> ' While thou, in mental luxury refin'd,
> Hast nobly banqueted thy thirsty mind

With all that art could yield, or taste require,
As purest aliment to Fancy's fire—
While thy unwearied hand, and soul elate,
Have jointly toil'd to copy or create,
My suffering mind would to itself complain,
Too conscious that the cloister of the brain
Seem'd like a fabric ransack'd by a Goth,
Whose cruel enmity and wasteful wrath,
Defacing all that Truth had treasur'd there,
Left but a cell for Sorrow's silent prayer.
But hence, despondiug Sloth! hence, dull Complaint!
That make even Pity's wearied spirit faint!
If Health, like Fortune, with capricious sway
Chequers the course of life's contracting day,
From each coy goddess with delight we learn,
Long absence but endears the late return.'

The second epistle contains an account of the origin of sculpture. On this subject, Mr. Hayley rejects the common traditions and opinions, and with just simplicity supposes that,

' No single region of the spacious earth
Can take exclusive pride in Sculpture's birth.
Wherever God, with bounty unconfin'd,
Gave man, his image, a creative mind,
Its lovely children, Arts mimetic, sprung,
And spoke, through different lands, in every tongue.'

This opinion is much strengthened by the discoveries of our navigators in the islands of the South Sea. From the monuments observed on Easter Island, particularly, we are enabled to advance a step farther, and to conjecture that the fabrication of colossal images of the dead may be among the rudest efforts of sculpture.

The progress of the art, from Egypt to Greece, is here well delineated, and the merits of some of the early Grecian sculptors are appreciated with much knowlege and ingenuity.

The character of Dædalus has exercised Mr. Hayley's powers, and especially the fable of his moving statues. We cannot but think that Palaphatus has given the most rational solution of this question. According to him, the first sculptors represented their figures with the limbs close; *συμπεφυκότας ἔχοντας τους πόδας.* Dædalus made his statues in the attitude of advancing one foot, and it was therefore said that they walked.

In the third epistle, the Greeks culptors are enumerated. We extract the animated description of Phydias's Olympian Jupiter:

' Genius of ancient Greece! whose influence ran
Through every talent that ennobles man;
O'er bright ideas taught the mind to brood,
And feast on glory, as its native food;
Bear me, in vision bear me, to that ground,
Where Honor's fervent spirit breath'd around;

Where

Where gay distinction held the garland high,
And thy prime wonders gladden'd every eye!
Thy favourite precincts at my wish appear,
Where hymns of triumph fill'd the raptur'd ear;
My eager feet have pass'd thy olive grove,
And touch'd the threshold of Olympian Jove!
' Lo, in calm pomp, with Art's profusion bright,
Whose blended glories fascinate the sight,
Sits the dread power! Around his awful head
The sacred foliage of the olive spred,
Declares that in his sovereign mind alone
Peace ever shines, and has for ever shone.
' The temple's precious precincts scarce enfold
The grand quiescent form of ivory and gold.
The symbols of his sway, on either hand,
Delight and reverence at once command.
Behold his right sweet Vict'ry's image bear,
Form'd, like his own, elaborately fair:
His left a sceptre with rich light invests,
And tranquil on its point his eagle rests;
His sandals are of gold; a golden robe
Proclaims his empire o'er the living globe:
For earth's mute creatures, on his vest are seen
With flowers, and first the lily as their queen.
' The rich compartments of the throne unfold
Ivory with ebony, and gems with gold:
Adorn'd with images, four massive feet
Sustain the radiance of the regal seat.
Around each foot four joyous forms advance,
Four Vict'ries, weaving a triumphant dance.
The throne's high summit shapes more lovely still
With animation and with beauty fill:
The Graces here upon their parent wait;
His filial Seasons there, and both in triple state.
' The labouring eye, with admiration smit,
Labours in vain each figure to admit,
That blended arts conspiring toil'd to raise
On this grand spectacle, surpassing praise.
Yet here all eyes, the skilful and unskill'd,
Impress'd with awe, and with amazement fill'd,
From the blest features of the god imbibe
Such thoughts as meliorate his mortal tribe.'

This epistle, with the copious and learned notes annexed to it, will furnish a rich feast for the classical scholar: since it treats of those topics which, on every repetition, preserve their power of enchantment. To the consideration of the arts and manners of Athens, our minds invariably return with affection.

Epistle IV. relates to the Etrurian artists, whose obscured fame is justly and poetically regretted. The robbery of Greece, by the Roman arms, is delineated with great felicity:

'Bright Excellence! 'tis thine, in evil days
To joy in Enmity's extorted praise:
So Grecian Art, her parent state undone,
From Roman pride reluctant homage won.
Rough was his worship paid to Sculpture's charms,
That injur'd beauty in a ruffian's arms!
Who view'd her grace with uninstructed eyes,
Proud to possess, though wanting taste to prize.
Gods! how regret and indignation glow
When History, mourning over Grecian woe,
Describes the fortune of each splendid fane,
Where Sculpture seem'd with sacred sway to reign!'

The sixth line, in this passage, has peculiar merit.

As the author advances to the brighter periods of the art in Rome, he characterizes the chiefs who overthrew the republic. His view of the favourable side of Cæsar's character, viz. his love of the arts, deserves the reader's attention:

'A mightier victor, of a nobler soul,
Yet darken'd by ambition's dire control,
The fearless Cæsar, of indulgent heart,
Shone the protecting friend of Grecian art.
Of tyrants most accomplish'd and benign,
'Twas his in genius and in taste to shine.
Could talents give a claim to empire's robe,
He might have liv'd the master of the globe:
But pride imperious that o'er-leap'd all bound,
Deserv'd from Roman hands the fate he found.
Yet shall the despot, though he justly bleeds,
Receive the praises due to graceful deeds:
His rival's statues, by mean slaves disgrac'd,
He in their public dignity replac'd.
His zeal for Sculpture, and his liberal care
To force the grave her buried works to spare,
To guard the rescu'd, and the lost to seek,
Let Corinth, rising from her ruins, speak.
That brilliant queen of Arts, at Cæsar's word,
Sprung from her ashes, like th' Arabian bird:
Her great restorer, fond of glory's blaze,
Sought to be first in every path of praise;
And found, in favour'd Art's reviving charms,
Delight superior to successful arms.
Had the firm Brutus not pronounc'd his doom,
His power to fascinate relenting Rome,
His varying genius, fashion'd to prevail
In peaceful projects of the grandest scale,
Would o'er the state have thrown such dazzling light,
And foil'd resistance with a blaze so bright,
Freedom herself, enamour'd of his fame,
Might have been almost tempted to exclaim,
" I see his benefits his wrongs transcend,
" And all the tyrant vanish in the friend!"

After a rapid view of the progress of sculpture under the emperors, this division of the work closes with a description of Hadrian's villa, and a poetical vision of the fortunes and decay of Rome and Constantinople.

The fifth epistle treats of the effects of sculpture in softening and polishing the manners of men. Here, we confess, more is attributed to the moral influence of art, than we can readily believe to be due to it. The union of taste with licentiousness is a fact too commonly observed to admit of dispute.

Epistle VI. and last is occupied entirely with the subject which seems to have so forcibly possessed the author's mind, during the progress of this composition;—the merits, and the sickness of his son. It is also decorated with a medallion of the lamented youth, from a design by Mr. Flaxman. We quote the following lines on this subject with much pleasure:

> 'That youth of fairest promise, fair as May,
> Pensively tender, and benignly gay,
> On thy medallion still retains a form,
> In health exulting, and with pleasure warm.
> Teach thou my hand, with mutual love, to trace
> His mind, as perfect as thy lines his face!
> For Nature in that mind was pleas'd to pour
> Of intellectual charms no trivial store;
> Fancy's high spirit, talent's feeling nerve,
> With tender modesty, with mild reserve,
> And those prime virtues of ingenuous youth,
> Alert benevolence, and dauntless truth;
> Zeal, ever eager to make merit known,
> And only tardy to announce its own;
> Silent ambition, but, though silent, quick,
> Yet softly shaded with a veil as thick
> As the dark glasses tinted to descry
> The sun, so soften'd not to wound the eye;
> Temper by nature and by habit clear
> From hasty choler, and from sullen fear,
> Spleen and dejection could not touch the mind
> That drew from solitude a joy refin'd,
> To nurse inventive fire, in silence caught,
> And brood successful o'er sequester'd thought.'

The poetical part of this volume exhibits the merits and defects which were characteristic of Mr. Hayley's former writings. The sentiments are liberal, ardent, and manly, and the writer displays throughout an enthusiastic fondness for his subject: but the construction of the verse is often prosaic, and whole passages sometimes display the *Studium sine divite vena.* We observe, likewise, in many passages, an unnecessary and a too licentious use of personification; as in the following:

'When happy Genius, by a daring flight,
Has seem d to perch on proud Perfection's height,
Afraid on disproportion'd wings to rise,
Aw'd and abash'd, weak Emulation dies.'

And in these lines;

'To call Invention from her coy recess,
And bid just Form the young idea dress.'

The notes, which, according to this author's custom, compose a large share of the volume, are learned, elegant, and amusing. Mr. Hayley has introduced into them several poetical translations from the Anthologia, in which he has been more just to the sense, than happy in preserving the manner of his originals. It is, indeed, chiefly in the structure of his verse that we can find reason for blaming this pleasing poet. Though the mechanical part of versification is an inferior object compared with the general one and colouring of the work, it cannot be neglected with impunity; and modern readers, accustomed to the strength and correctnes of Pope, will not admit a line to be poetical merely because it happens to consist precisely of ten syllables. It is with unwillingness that we advert to deficiencies of this nature, which have too often interrupted our pleasure in the writings of the present author; and which perhaps have arisen, in some degree, from the wrong choice of a model, since Mr. Hayley seems more inclined to imitate Johnson than Pope.

We extract, as a specimen of Mr. H.'s illustrations of his text, the note on a part of the IIId epistle, relative to the famous Praxiteles:

'Praxiteles, who is mentioned by Pliny as flourishing with his brother artist Euphranor, in the 104th Olympiad, arose to the highest distinction for the impassioned delicacy of his works, both in brass and marble, but particularly in marble. The rank he held in the public esteem is evident from the petty anecdote recorded in Phædrus, that those who had delicate pieces of sculpture to sell, enhanced the price of them by erasing the name of Myron, and inserting that of Praxiteles in its place. Pliny, who has enumerated many productions of Praxiteles, celebrates his Gnidian Venus as the most perfect image of beauty that sculpture ever produced; and relates some amusing incidents in proof of its perfection, particularly an offer made to the inhabitants of Gnidos, by the king Nicomedes, who was desirous of purchasing this admired statue on the liberal terms of paying the heavy public debt of their island. They chose rather to struggle with any difficulties than to relinquish a work of art with which Praxiteles had ennobled their country. The statue was stationed in a small open temple, that the form of the goddess might be visible in every direction; and it was esteemed admirable in every point of view. Universal admiration gave birth

to several Greek epigrams on this exquisite statue. I have selected the two following from the Anthologia:

'ΑΝΤΙΠΑΤΡΟΥ

εις αγαλμα ΑΦροδιτης της εν Κνιδῳ.

Τις λιθον εψυχωσε; τις εν χθονι Κυπριν εσειδεν;
Ιμερον εν πετρη τις τοσον εργασατο;
Πραξιτελης χειρων οδε που πονος· η ταχ' Ολυμπος
Χηρευει, Παφιης εις Κνιδον ερχομενης.'

'Grotii Versio.

'Quis lapidi spirare dedit? Quis Cyprida vidit
In terris? Quantum marmor amoris habet!
Praxitelis manus est! Venere, ut puto, regia cœli
Jam caret, ad Gnidios venit ut ipsa Venus.'

'Who gave the stone a soul? Say, who has seen
And of this marble made Affection's queen?
Praxiteles! thy work makes Heaven appear
Now desolate, and Venus only here.'

'ΛΟΥΚΙΑΝΟΥ

εις το αυτο.

Σοι μορφης ανεθηκα τενς περικαλλες αγαλμας,
Κυπρι, τενς μορφης φερτερον ουδεν εχων.'

'Grotii Versio.

'Alma Venus, tibi sacro tuam sub imagine formam;
Pulchrius hac potuit nil tibi, diva, dari.'

'Venus! to thee I rais'd thy form divine,
Convinc'd no offering can thy form outshine.'

'The glory that Praxiteles acquired from the excellence of his Venus was increased by the felicity with which he executed more than one statue of Cupid. The orations of Cicero against Verres have given celebrity to the marble Cupid, which the orator represents as a rival to one still more famous, by the same artist, that formed the pride and the wealth of the Thespians.—a statue spared by Mummius, when he plundered the cities of Greece. The rapacious Verres had robbed an ingenious and friendly Sicilian of a similar exquisite and invaluable work of art, which Cicero describes as the production of Praxiteles. It is remarkable that the Roman orator speaks with singular modesty, on this occasion, of his own knowledge as a connoisseur: "Marmoreum Praxitelis, (nimirum didici etiam, dum in istum inquiro, artificum nomina.") The rapacity of the infamous governor had indeed amassed such a collection of sculpture, that an examination of his plunder was almost sufficient to form a Roman connoisseur. The curious reader may find this collection agreeably illustrated in a Dissertation by the Abbé Fraguier, inserted in the Memoirs of the French Academy, and intitled "The Gallery of Verres."

'The happiest of Cicero's repartees alluded to a statue of this collection, a very valuable sphinx of bronze, which formed a part of

the powerful extortioner's Sicilian plunder. Verres had bestowed it, as a retaining fee, on his advocate, the celebrated orator Hortensius, who had a strong passion for works of art. In the course of the pleadings, Hortensius happened to say to his antagonist, "I do not understand these riddles!"—"But you ought," replied Cicero; "for you have the sphinx at home *."

'To return to the Cupid of Praxiteles.—The sculptor Falconet has censured his countryman, M. de Jaucourt, for inserting in the French Encyclopedia an anecdote relating to this celebrated statue, told on the authority of the President de Thou. The story says that the Marchioness of Mantua possessed, in the year 1573, the Cupid of Praxiteles, and the sleeping Cupid of Michael Angelo; and that de Thou, with other guests of the Marchioness, were charmed with the work of the modern artist, till they compared it with a superior work of antiquity that seemed to annihilate its merit. The story is certainly improbable in many points of view; and Falconet exults in producing what he considers as a proof that the fact was impossible: I mean, the testimony of Pausanias, declaring that the famous Cupid of Praxiteles, a statue of marble, and the idol of the Thespians, perished (after a variety of adventures) in a fire at Rome. The evidence of Pausanias sufficiently proves, indeed, the fate of the Thespian statue, but it does not amount to a proof that it was impossible for the Marchioness of Mantua to possess a Cupid executed by Praxiteles; because we have already seen that there existed two marble Cupids of acknowledged beauty, by this illustrious sculptor; and among the statues described by Callistratus, two Cupids, by the same artist, in bronze, are celebrated as works of exquisite perfection. On one of these, perhaps, the following epigram was written; though Junius imagined that it was composed on the Thespian Cupid, and that the poet has taken the liberty to turn the marble into brass:

'ΙΟΥΛΙΑΝΟΥ, απο υπαρχων Αιγυπτιω,
εις τον Πραξιτελους Ερωτα.

Κλινας αυχενα γαυρον υΦ ημετεροισι πεδιλοις
Χερσι με λιθιδαις επλασε Πραξιτελης.
Αυτον γαρ τον Ερωτα τον ενδοθι κευθομενον με
Χαλκωσας, Φρυνη δωκε γερας Φιλιης.
Η δε μιν αυθις Ερωτι προσηγαγε· και γαρ ερωντας
Δωρον Ερωτι Φερειν αυτον Ερωτα θεμις.'

'Grotii Versio.

'Praxiteles famulante manu me fecit Amorem,
Sub pedibus pressus colla superba meis;

'* Both Pliny and Quintilian have recorded this bon mot. The latter cites it as a model of oratorical urbanity: "Ex historia etiam ducere urbanitatem, eruditum; ut Cicero fecit, cum ei testem in judicio Verris roganti dixisset Hortensius: 'Non intelligo hæc ænigmata.' 'Atqui debes, inquit, cum sphingem domi habeas.' Acceperat autem ille a Verre sphingem æneam magnæ pecuniæ."—QUINTIL. lib. vi. c. 3."

Fecit

Fecit ut, in venis quem sensit, aheneus essem,
Ut Phrynæ donum me daret ipse suæ:
Illa datum tibi rursus, Amor, sacravit Amori,
Namque dari dignum munus amantis Amor.'

'Julian, the Ægyptian Prefect, on the Cupid of Praxiteles.

'Praxiteles, proud slave of my command,
Thus form'd my statue with his fetter'd hand.
Me, couch'd within him, he in bronze portray'd
For Phryne, who with love the gift repaid.
She made her captive mine. To hearts that burn,
Love is for Love the only just return.'

Having discharged our duty to the public, by delivering an unreserved opinion respecting the poem before us, we must conclude with one additional remark, which justice also demands of us; that, in our apprehension, no person will rise from the perusal of this essay, without feeling much respect for the knowlege and talents of the author: *Virum bonum facile dixeris, magnum libenter.*

Fer.

Art. II. *The History of Scotland*, from the Union of the Crowns on the Accession of James VI. to the Throne of England, to the Union of the Kingdoms in the Reign of Queen Anne. By Malcolm Laing, Esq. With two Dissertations, historical and critical, on the Gowrie Conspiracy, and on the supposed Authenticity of Ossian's Poems. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. about 520 in each Vol. 12s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

In the year 1759, Dr. Robertson presented to the world his History of Scotland *; which comprehended the reign of Queen Mary and that of King James VI. till his accession to the Crown of England, together with a Review of Scottish History previously to that busy and important period. The great and original merit of this work, which has deservedly placed its author in the first rank of historians, satisfactorily accounts for and completely justifies the success which it has experienced. The transactions of the period which it embraced were entertaining and momentous: they produced two parties who were actuated against each other by the strongest political hatred; and these parties gave rise to writers who defended their respective sentiments and conduct with such energy, that truth could scarcely be attained from their jarring accounts.—Party animosity continued with equal if not increased violence, during the succeeding reigns of the first and second Charles and the second James; and an impartial history of that time has not hitherto appeared: though the prejudices, which then raged

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* See M. Rev. vol. xx. p. 163.

with

with uncontroulable violence, may now be supposed to have subsided, and to have yielded to different and later partialities.

The author of the volumes now before us observes, in his preface, that

'The domestic transactions of Scotland, from the Accession to the Union, have hitherto remained concealed in manuscripts, or buried in the obscure volumes of ecclesiastical disputation. The most prominent events alone are occasionally recorded in English historians; but the causes, consequences, and the whole train of subordinate incidents, are imperfectly known. It becomes not me to determine, hardly indeed to conjecture, how far, or whether I have succeeded in my design, to give a just and impartial continuation of the History of Scotland down to the period when its History expires.

'During the whole of the civil wars, it is impossible to separate the history of the two kingdoms. Without departing therefore from my professed design, I have entered largely into the relative affairs of England, and omitted no opportunity to illustrate, concisely, the most disputed passages concerning the origin and continuance of the civil wars, the character and motives of Charles I. and the cause of his death. It is here, where the judgment is pre-occupied with some historical theory or political system, that I anticipate the principal objections to my work; but if I deviate from our recent historians, I approach the nearer to those original authorities which I have been the more careful to quote, and which they who dispute my conclusions are requested to consult.'

The detail of these domestic transactions is particularly interesting; and we find in these volumes a narrative of events, both civil and ecclesiastical, which fully accounts for the hostility which the family of Stuart experienced in the northern part of the island. Instead of being surprized that the Scottish nation threw off all allegiance to the sovereigns of that race, their cruelty, perfidy, and general misconduct were such, that we rather wonder at the patience, long suffering, and forbearance exhibited by that injured people.

The materials, which have been chiefly consulted by Mr. Laing in the course of the present work, are pointed out by him in the following passage of his preface:

'The manuscript materials employed in this history are chiefly derived from the library of the Faculty of Advocates at Edinburgh, to which I enjoy a professional access. Calderwood's MS. cited wherever the printed abstract is defective, Matthew Crawford's, and some other manuscript histories, were procured from the records of the church of Scotland. The records of the justiciary court, and of the privy council, have been frequently examined; but I am indebted for many valuable materials, to the private repositories of gentlemen, whose friendship I am proud to acknowledge. Mr. Erskine

Erskine of Mar communicated to me the correspondence of his ancestors, the earl of Mar and his brother lord Grange, without solicitation and without reserve. Through the friendship of Mr. Clerk of Elden, whose Naval Tactics have contributed to our naval victories, I obtained full access to the historical writings of his father Sir John Clerk of Pennycuick, a commissioner at the Union; and from the honourable Mr. Maule I procured the transcripts of Fountainhall's Memoirs, and of other MSS. preserved by his ancestor, Mr. Henry Maule.

'Instead of extracting from these materials a collection of original papers, in which it would be difficult to separate historical facts from the fanaticism of the age, I have subjoined such Notes and Illustrations as were necessary to explain at length, and to confirm the most doubtful, or disputed passages in each volume. On two occasions only I have departed from this plan. The forgery detected in Logan of Restalrig's supposed letters, might appear to discredit the whole Gowrie Conspiracy, which belongs to the preceding period of history; but I have annexed, without scruple, to the first volume, an Historical Dissertation for which I am indebted to the friendship of Mr. Pinkerton, who, in my apprehension, has placed that obscure transaction in its genuine light. The other instance, in which I have deserted my accustomed mode of illustration, is the Dissertation annexed to the second volume, on the supposed Authenticity of Ossian's Poems. The prevailing belief of their authenticity, at home and abroad, will render it the less surprising, that in a question concerning our literature and early history, I was desirous to vindicate to my countrymen that incredulity which I have freely and repeatedly expressed. As a short note was found insufficient, I have entered, as concisely as possible, into a copious detection of those spurious poems, by some supposed to reflect the greatest honour, by others the greatest disgrace, on that part of the nation which claims and attests the imposture as its own.'

To the character of James I. Mr. Laing does not appear to be partial; and he attributes his peaceful and undisturbed possession of the Crown of England to the absence of every competitor, by whom his title could be contested, or the affections of the nation pre-occupied or divided.—The account of this Monarch's unsuccessful attempt to effectuate an union, and an ecclesiastical conformity between the two nations, is interesting. James was hostile both to the *form* and to the *spirit* of presbyterian discipline, because he regarded them as obnoxious to that unlimited monarchy which he wished to establish.—As the consequences of the introduction of episcopal government were so memorable in the succeeding reigns, and were ultimately so disastrous to the family of the Stuarts, Mr. Laing has thought it expedient to give a retrospective view of presbytery, and of the changes which were attempted in the Scottish church. From this part of the work, and indeed from

all

all other parts in which ecclesiastical concerns are discussed, we have derived considerable information.

That our readers may be made acquainted with the state of Scotland at this period, we extract the following account:

'James, established now on the throne of Britain, had attained to the summit of his fortune and ambition; and, by a singular felicity, he whose birth was disastrous to his parents, whose infant reign was calamitous to his subjects, and his person the alternate prize of contending factions, had arrived, without the aid of distinguished merit, and almost without an effort, to the undisturbed possession of three kingdoms. Whatever he had meditated for the improvement, or concerted for the better regulation of his paternal dominions, remained now to be executed; and certainly the situation of Scotland afforded ample scope for the exercise of his political wisdom. The country, agitated during his minority with civil dissensions, and often ravaged by internal war, remained on the return of tranquillity, exhausted and debilitated; without industry, and destitute of resources to prosecute schemes of remote aggrandizement. Its trade was limited to a few towns, and consisted of wool, hides, and the more precarious produce of its mines and fishings, exported in small barks of little value, and exchanged for whatever articles of utility or luxury were requisite to supply its domestic consumption. Wherever the rude products constitute the staple commodities of a country, large or important manufactures are not to be expected: those of Scotland were confined to a few of the coarsest nature, without which the poorest nations are unable to subsist. The state of agriculture was languid and stationary, obstructed, even in the southern provinces, by the oppressions of the landlord, the dependence of the farmer, and their mutual poverty; but in the northern counties, the peasant extracted a scanty pittance from a soil exhausted by constant tillage. The nobility disdained, or obeyed with reluctance the decisions of justice. They continued to prosecute their deadly feuds; to abet the most desperate crimes of their retainers; and, under their numerous hereditary jurisdictions, to extend their oppressions, their power, and dependents beyond the circle of their respective vassals. Their feuds were inveterate; and their revenge was frequently dishonest and insidious. The sanguinary troubles of a female reign, and a long minority, had perverted or extinguished their sense of morals, and discovered, during a religious age, that no religion can compensate the absence or the relaxations of justice.

'A distracted country, whose poverty presented no adequate reward nor an occupation for industry, had already been deserted by many of the natives, who, penetrating into the remotest regions, acquired, or perhaps revived among foreigners, the national appellation of a vagrant race. Their numbers multiplied rapidly in Poland, whose plains they traversed in large caravans; whose internal trade they divided with the Jews; and, during the last century, a constant influx of fresh adventurers returned enriched by the luxury of the Polish

Polish nobles *. But a large portion of Scotland retained the primitive ferocity of its savage state. The Isles are represented as *utterly* barbarous; the Highlands as barbarous, yet not unsusceptible of a slight civilization. The former, an occasional asylum for pirates, scarcely acknowleged a nominal subjection to the Scottish crown; the clans of the latter exhausted their rude valour in mutual slaughter, or infested the adjacent Lowlands with slight depredations. From a constant warfare, the inhabitants of the Borders were equally barbarous, and from their vicinity, far more formidable to government. James, from their strength and turbulence, had early presaged that unless possessed of the whole of Britain, his successor would be soon bereft of its northern extremity, and of his anointed head; a prediction destined to be strangely verified, by the acquisition of that kingdom for which he was solicitous.'

The author gives no credit to the examination and confessions of Sprott, the Notary, with regard to the share taken by Logan of Restalrig in the Gowrie conspiracy. The attainder of Logan after his death,—an odious and illegal measure,—is without scruple imputed by Mr. Laing to the avarice of the two ministers, Balmerino and Dunbar; who were desirous of obtaining Logan's estates; and who are here represented as involved in the complicated guilt of forgery, false accusation, and judicial murder, in order to attain their unjustifiable purpose.

On the subject of this very mysterious transaction, to which we alluded in a former Review, in our account of Mr. Heron's History †, we are now presented at the end of vol. i. with an historical Dissertation from the pen of Mr. Pinkerton. In discussing this conspiracy, Mr. P. endeavours to support the following theory; that Alexander Ruthven, the Earl of Gowrie's brother, a favourite of the Queen, Anne of Denmark, was the sole author of this attempt; a plot in itself foolish and weakly conducted, but designed to accomplish some object which both had in view: most probably an abdication of the government by James, in favour of Prince Henry, and the Queen's appointment to the Regency.—The conjecture is probable, and is supported by arguments that are plausible; which, at this distance of time, is all that can reasonably be expected concerning so dark a transaction. The manner, however, in which this

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'* Bacon, vol. ii. p. 175, from which it appears that they were numerous in Poland before the accession. Carte, Hist. vol. iii. p. 770. asserts, that from the accession till the death of Charles I. 200,000 *families* had emigrated to Livonia! as if the population of the country could have supplied an annual emigration of 4000 families, or 20,000 persons.'

† See our last volume, p. 276.

disser-

dissertation is written, is objectionable, as exhibiting a mixture of vivacity approaching to flippancy, and of confidence bordering on conceit.

We shall conclude our view of this reign with the dispassionate character of James I. as drawn by Mr. Laing; which it is amusing and not uninstructive to compare with the studied and delusive panegyric of Hume:

'In the preceding narrative, I have endeavoured to comprise a series of ecclesiastical transactions, diffused through the last years of the reign of James. His death was occasioned by a tertian ague; but in a credulous age, and among a discontented people, the application of some empyrical remedies excited vague and unfounded suspicions of poison. He expired at the age of sixty-nine, in the fifty seventh year of his reign in Scotland, and the twenty-second after his accession to the throne of England. His fortune was superior to that of his progenitors, and his felicity greater than that of his descendants. His person inherited no share of the beauty of his parents, nor his mind a portion of the exalted spirit which distinguished his ancestors. He was permanent in his friendship, but capriciously attracted by address or elegance to the most worthless objects; naturally lenient, yet vindictive, intolerant, and, from an extreme facility, betrayed by his minions into a frequent compliance with their most criminal pursuits; unreserved and familiar, yet capable of profound dissimulation and cunning; from a predominant vanity, accessible and prone to the grossest adulation; pedantic without the merit of useful literature; prodigal without the praise of true generosity. His reign was beneficial to England because it was tranquil; but unprofitable to Scotland, as it was spent in a contemptible struggle with the clergy, and in a vain attempt to surmount the religious persuasions of his subjects. Historians partial to his family, have sought a vindication of his misconduct in the dangerous independence of a sullen enthusiasm, that required an intermixture of more refined superstition; and an apology for his miscarriage, in the uncertain operations of the religious spirit, when infused into faction, susceptible of no calculation or control. That the ecclesiastical should be subordinate to the civil establishment is essential to the preservation of every social institution; and had his views extended only to the reduction of that dangerous independence which the church had assumed, the vindication would be just. But in every innovation it should at least be considered, that there is danger in counteracting the tide of popular opinion; and the monarch who aspires to regulate the national faith, forgets on what slight foundation his authority depends.'

In the narrative of the busy and distressing scenes which occupied the latter years of the reign of the unfortunate and ill-advised Charles, whose natural abilities were considerable, but whose integrity was more than questionable, we observe the same impartiality and clearness which we have admired in

other parts of these volumes. Truth appears to be the author's sole object; and in the pursuit of it he is neither biassed by improper prejudices, nor checked by any fear that the result of his investigations may be unfavorable to this or that hypothesis.—As these events, however, have been so frequently detailed, and have lately in more than one instance come under our examination, we shall detain our readers only with Mr. Laing's account of the negotiations between the English and the Scots, with respect to the surrender of this monarch's person, by the latter, to his most inveterate enemies:

'On this subject (observes the author) I am sensible, that there is equal danger of incurring, on the one hand, the imputation of national partiality and prejudice, or of acquiescing on the other, without due examination, too precipitately in the received opinion; but the fidelity of the historian will be absolved by an accurate explanation of each transaction in the order of time, the best criterion, perhaps, of historical truth.

'The retreat then of the Scots, and the discharge of their arrears, were proposed in August, to prevent an immediate declaration of the commons against the king. Their demands exceeded a million, after the deduction of free quarters, contributions, and occasional pay, which were estimated by themselves at seven, and by the English at fourteen hundred thousand pounds. Their demands were exorbitant; but the deductions claimed by the English were not less unreasonable. A gross sum was proposed, and on the first of September the amount of arrears was fixed at four hundred thousand pounds; a moiety of which was to be advanced, before the departure of their army.

'On the eighteenth of September, the commons resolved, that the disposal of the king's person belonged exclusively to the two houses, but that no consultation nor dispute on the subject should obstruct the performance of treaties, or the return of the Scots. The resolution was communicated to the Scottish commissioners, and resented in a manner sufficient to demonstrate, that it had not entered into consideration in the settlement of arrears. At a solemn conference, Loudon, Lauderdale, and Wariston asserted their national right to an equal and joint share in the disposal of the king; maintained that their interest in his person was not determined by his residence in England, especially as they were parties, not auxiliaries, in the war; disclaimed the intention of conducting him to Scotland, as a measure obviously replete with danger; and proposed as a safer alternative, that he should be permitted either to return to parliament, or to reside with honour and safety at one of his own houses near the capital. Their speeches and remonstrances were surreptitiously published; but the printer was arrested, and the impression seized and suppressed. When republished afterwards by their connivance in Scotland, their arguments extorted a long vindication in return from the commons, who insisted that the king's person was included, while in England, within the jurisdiction, and subject to the disposal of the parliament alone. The question

question was certainly without a precedent, but the answer of a single branch of the legislature was rejected punctiliously by the Scottish commissioners, whose conduct, in a dispute irreconcilable with the supposition of a tacit connivance, exculpates them from any previous compromise for the delivery of the king.

'The amount of arrears was adjusted in August, but when the Scottish parliament met in November, the disposal of his person remained undetermined. The duke of Hamilton, who had obtained his release on the surrender of Mount St. Michael, was received into favour, and employed to conciliate the estates to his interest; and it was still the unanimous opinion of his friends, as well as of the presbyterians, that he should accept the propositions, or afford full satisfaction, at least, in religion. Addresses had been presented from every quarter; the Scottish army, the commission of the church, and the committee of estates had petitioned Charles to establish religion according to the covenant; and Hamilton earnestly concurred in their representations, that the covenant alone would suffice for his preservation. Such was the estimation in which it was still held, that without violating his conscience by receiving it himself, if he had assented merely to an act for its confirmation in each kingdom, all Scotland would have declared in his favour, and, in the opinion of the presbyterians, few in England would have ventured to oppose the restitution of a limited power. But his obstinate and inflexible refusal of every proposition increased their mistrust, that he continued secretly devoted to the religious and political maxims of Laud, and desired admittance into Scotland with design to renew, and by the violation of their covenant, to involve the nation in a dangerous war. The intrigues of Hamilton were, therefore, unsuccessful. A vote was obtained by surprise, in a committee of the whole estates, to maintain the personal freedom, and hereditary right of their king to the English throne; but it appears that this untimely excess of zeal, from the alarm which it excited, was prejudicial to his cause. The minds of men were variously agitated by the most opposite sentiments. It was represented by Hamilton as repugnant to the covenant to abandon their sovereign, and dishonourable to the nation to resign their interest in an ancient, and long established succession of kings. Was this a grateful return for his unlimited concessions before the war, or for the confidence reposed in their generosity, when he entrusted his person unconditionally to their protection? Were they prepared for the censures of the world, or aware of the danger to be apprehended from the party predominant in England, if his person were surrendered to his inveterate foes? But the resolution was no sooner adopted by the committee, than other sentiments began to prevail. That devoted and mixed attachment to the family and person of the monarch, which constitutes loyalty, and was never firmly established in Scotland, had been lost in a succession of civil wars. It was still remembered, that the two first had been wantonly undertaken to deprive them of their civil and religious rights. If these were afterwards confirmed by Charles, what thanks were due for concessions which were meant as bribes, to lull them into an insecure neutrality, till the English parliament were suppressed by his arms;

arms; and which must have been revoked on its subjection, unless they had timely interposed in the war? What gratitude belonged to the unconditional refuge which he sought in their camp, when no choice remained but to surrender at discretion, and his only motive was to prolong the war by their resources and arms? The reception which he demanded in Scotland, on the return of their army, was dictated by the same design to involve the nation in a new war for his support. Whatever the event of such war might prove, their ruin was inevitable, whether the malignants, as the royalists were still denominated, should regain an ascendant, or the English succeed in chastising their perfidious dereliction of the covenant.

'These considerations were enforced by a solemn warning from the commission of the church, that their assistance to restore the king was unlawful, unless the covenant and league with England should receive his cordial assent, and his subjects full satisfaction in their just desires. The parliament hastened to retract the vote of the preceding day. As a last unavailing effort, commissioners were appointed from each estate, to intimate to the king, that unless the propositions were accepted, he had no reception nor assistance to expect in Scotland. Instead of returning a definitive answer, Charles, on the first notice of this resolution, renewed his application for a personal conference with the English parliament. He desired permission to proceed to London, or to reside with freedom at one of his own palaces in the neighbourhood; and the lords resolved, that he might come to Newmarket on the departure of the Scots, but the commons determined that Holdenby-house in Northumberland was fitter for his reception.

'At this period we are informed by Whitlock, that a mutual understanding first began for the delivery of the king. The disposal of his person was every way difficult; his removal to Scotland was an event which the independents expected, and the presbyterians justly deprecated as the signal of a national war. It was dangerous to leave him exposed to the English army; and the wisest measure undoubtedly was to provide at once for his reception in London. Whether his return to the capital was opposed by the presbyterians, who were apprehensive of his intrigues, or by the independents, jealous of the possession of his person, must remain uncertain. But we are assured by one who was privy to the whole transaction, that Stapleton, Hollis, and the leading presbyterians, were the chief instruments to persuade the Scots to surrender the king into their hands and withdraw from England, as the only means by which the independent army, which had been kept on foot in opposition to theirs, could be securely disbanded, and peace re-established according to their desires. Their army prepared accordingly to evacuate England, when a sum was provided for the discharge of half their arrears. Their parliament concurred in the removal of Charles to Holdenby-house, till a more satisfactory answer were obtained to the propositions for peace. Their arrears were undoubtedly due: the amount was ascertained before the dispute concerning the disposal, and the payment was undertaken by the English parliament, five months previous to the delivery of the king. But the coincidence,

however unavoidable, between that event and the actual discharge and departure of their army, still affords a presumptive proof of the national imputation of having sold their king; "as the English, unless previously assured of receiving his person, would never have relinquished a sum so considerable as to weaken themselves, while it strengthened a people with whom such a material question remained to be discussed."

'The necessities of their situation, or the danger of conducting him to Scotland, are no answer to this forcible objection. A better vindication is contained in the uniform tenor of their political conduct, and in the unvaried object of their most secret intrigues. They had received the king, with no view certainly to renew the war, but in the expectation, and on the assurance of full satisfaction to the two kingdoms; and without a perfidious violation of their engagement with the English parliament, they could neither conclude a separate peace, nor embark in his defence, unless their joint demands were obtained. But they engaged to support and reinstate him on the throne, if their original demands were granted respecting the covenant and the presbyterian church, together with some satisfactory answer to the other propositions; and on this subject the importunities of their commissioners never ceased. The addresses of their parliament were reiterated during the months of November, December, and January, while the disposal of his person remained in agitation. On the very eve of their departure, before the delivery of his person, their commissioners renewed the most earnest offers to conduct him to Berwick, and to procure more equitable terms from the English parliament, on his assent to the covenant, and the presbyterian government; and an immense bribe was proposed to Montreville, to obtain even a bare promise of his compliance with their religious demands. The fact is, their situation was so peculiar that they could neither retain nor relinquish the possession of his person, without incurring the imputation of treachery to the parliament, or of disloyalty to the king. To the parliament, at least, they were stedfast in their engagements; and their repeated offers, renewed at the period of their departure, to undertake his defence on the only terms consistent with their original engagements, their religious principles, or their political interests, should absolve them from the imputation of having sold their king, or retained his person as a pledge to extort their arrears.'

Our extracts from this valuable work must now approach their termination; and we shall conclude them with the character of this ill-starred sovereign, and the summary account of the misfortunes of his house:

'His character is more difficult to estimate, as it has been loaded with unmerited crimes by his enemies, and overcharged with virtues by the partiality of his friends. Temperate, chaste, and exemplary in his conduct, grave and dignified in his deportment, in his conversation strictly observant of decorum, he was diligent in the performance of every act of devotion, exact in the discharge of every moral duty incumbent on a father, a husband, or a friend. If insensible to

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the feelings of refined humanity, his heart was not insusceptible of a tender affection and permanent friendship. His mind was naturally acute and solid; cool and intrepid in danger, on great occasions magnanimous and equal; endued with a cultivated and magnificent taste, nor defective in those meaner, ornamental qualities which adorn a throne. The virtues of private life were undoubtedly his; but when we reverse the portrait, such were the opposite imperfections of his character, that those virtues were unprofitable to the public, and not unfrequently pernicious to himself. His religion was superstitious, intolerant, and replete with bigotry: his dignity, supercilious and seldom affable, betrayed an harsh and repulsive pride. His ear was open to suspicion, nor inaccessible to flattery: his conjugal affection was uxorious in the extreme: his manners, although he was seldom generous, were equally ungracious, whether he granted or refused a request. Tenacious of his purpose, inflexible and obstinate in the prosecution of his objects, but inconsiderate, rash, and easily persuaded to the choice, or alteration of the means, his mind was unduly elevated by prosperity, though never equally overwhelmed by adverse fortune. His humanity is impeached by those barbarous punishments inflicted by the Star-chamber, for the monarch who tolerates the cruelties of his judges, which are never inflicted unless when acceptable, becomes responsible for their crimes. But the ruling passion, or rather the uniform principle of his whole life, was the desire of an inordinate power, which he refused to share unless with the prelates, and which he could neither enjoy with moderation nor consent to resign.

'Sincerity was certainly no part of his character; but his insincerity was rather that of a priest who provides some previous reservation to evade, than of a prince who perfidiously violates, the obligation which he contemns. A subtle and professed casuist *, he was enabled to reconcile the most disingenuous protestations to his own conscience, and without an absolute breach of veracity, studied by verbal evasions to deceive his enemies, and by mental equivocation to deceive himself. It is not sufficient to affirm, that the difficulties of his situation, his own imprudence, or even the utmost malignity of fortune, occasioned the great and almost unexampled calamities of his reign. We must add that the early and repeated instances of his insincerity, which we have occasionally described, had created such a firm belief of his dissimulation, that the popular leaders, from a well-founded distrust of his ambiguous declarations, were ever afraid to treat, unless on their own terms, to which he was unwilling, or unable to accede. The evidence resulting from his confidential letters, where the proofs of a disingenuous mind can alone be found, is industriously suppressed by those partial historians, who asserting the unblemished integrity of his character, take no note of the principal

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' * He translated Sanderson *De Juramenti Promissorii Obligatione*, while in the Isle of Wight. It is justly observed by Walpole, that casuistry is not necessary for the observance, but for the breach of an oath; that an honest man who studies cases of conscience, expects to find that he need not be quite so honest as he thought.'

cause of his misfortunes and death. That his condemnation was unjust, that he suffered from a violent and usurped authority, has never been disputed, unless by zealots, but when examined in a moral or political view, his conduct is not susceptible of an easy vindication. Whether his exalted ideas of the prerogative in England, were derived from established, or irregular precedents of an unsettled constitution, is an inquiry foreign to the design of this history: but his religious innovations, the sole object of his reign in Scotland, were introduced by a conscious violation of the laws, and a direct invasion of the legislative power. The facility with which he commenced hostilities against his subjects, reduced the Scots to the necessity of self defence, while the English were gradually familiarized and habituated to the ideas of resistance. His subsequent conduct contains an internal proof, that his concessions to the latter were meant to be resumed, and their parliament to be reduced by force of arms; and from the same motive, every accommodation was declined or disappointed during the flattering prospect of a successful war. But the immediate cause of his destruction, and undoubtedly one of the most exceptionable parts of his conduct, was his engagement with the Scots for the renewal of the civil wars, during a treaty with parliament; and when we consider how short is the distance between the prison and the grave of kings, that their enemies are ever prone to retaliate those severe conditions under which they fought themselves, it must appear far less surprising that he perished on a scaffold, than that he survived so long. The right of punishment seems to be implied in resistance, for it is difficult to conceive by what argument resistance can be justified, if it is forbidden to chastise, or prevent the resumption of an arbitrary power. But obedience to government is the general rule; resistance is an exception which rarely occurs, and for what purpose inculcate the exception, to which mankind are sufficiently addicted, in preference to the rule on which our security depends? To resist the encroachments, to correct the misconduct, to revoke the delegated powers of their magistrates, are doctrines not less dangerous perhaps for a government to tolerate, than for the people to forget. If never inculcated, the exception is soon forgotten, and society sinks at last into a state of tame servility from which there is no regeneration. The arbitrary reign of Charles would have been prolonged by his sons, and the two kingdoms, oppressed and converted by a popish successor, might have inquired at present, as a subject of curious, but silent speculation, what were the religion or liberties which their ancestors enjoyed.

'But whatever were the faults or imperfections of Charles, his misfortunes were great and unparalleled till of late, except in the eventful destiny of the house of Stewart. Historians have truly observed, that of ten generations of kings, his father, and the first prince of his race, were the only two who escaped a violent or untimely death. Robert II. the first of the Stewarts, expired of old age; Robert III. of a broken heart at the murder of one son, and the captivity of another. James I. returned from a long captivity, to perish in a few years by the hands of assassins. His son was killed at the siege of Roxburgh, his grandson by his rebellious subjects.

jects. James IV. expiated his father's death at the battle of Flodden, and James V. died of indignation and grief. The misfortunes or crimes of his daughter, the beautiful and accomplished Mary, have furnished almost every art with a theme of historical or romantic distress; and when she suffered on the scaffold, her vindictive rival suggested unconsciously, the fatal precedent for the trial of her grandson, and the execution of a king. James VI. experienced a natural death, but the calamities of the family seemed to be accumulated on Charles. His sister's children were expelled from their paternal dominions. His nephew, the elector palatine, subsisted on the bounty of parliament; and by a final reverse of fortune, his posterity, after a short restoration, has suffered a second exile; the last prince of his race has obtained a precarious retreat in the Romish church, while the descendants of his sister, by a female branch, have been raised to the secure possession of the throne from which his son was expelled.'

Mr. Laing is satisfied that the *Icon Basilike* was a political forgery, proceeding from the pen of Dr. Gauden; and indeed this opinion is sufficiently verified by a letter, inserted in the Clarendon papers, addressed to the Chancellor by Gauden, in which he claims the merit and reward of this pious deception.

It is impossible to peruse the transactions of the two succeeding reigns, without feeling the strongest abhorrence of the characters by whom they were concerted, and of the motives in which they originated. The cruelties committed by James in Scotland, both in the life-time of his brother and after his death, are so numerous and disgusting, that we turn our eyes from the recital with insuperable aversion. That such enormities should be perpetrated by man against his fellow man is sufficiently deplorable: but that such outrages should be committed under the pretence of promoting a religion which teaches peace, good-will, and universal charity, would surpass the belief of any person who was unexperienced in the history of the world.—Mr. Laing is of opinion that the revolution was to England a glorious event, rather useful than absolutely necessary to restore tranquillity *to Scotland*, and to revive the confidence of the people in government; 'without which (says the author) the king degenerates into a tyrant, and his subjects vibrate alternately between rebels and slaves. So various and enormous, (continues Mr. L.) was the tyranny which I have attempted imperfectly to delineate, that the people never could have dismissed their suspicion and resentment, nor the government the terrors which it felt and sought to inspire; the uniform principle of despotism, for which we may truly affirm that there was no cure but the expulsion of the Stewarts.'

From what we have already said respecting the merits of this performance, and from our extensive extracts, the reader will

infer that our judgment of the work is highly favourable. We have seldom, indeed, perused an historical composition which appeared to us to be written so entirely in a spirit of impartiality; though it discusses the events of a period which still too frequently produces animosity and party-spirit. The reflections are candid, judicious, and moderate; the facts are well arranged, and stated with distinctness: but we think that, in his attempts at elegant composition, the author is too frequently betrayed into obscurity.

At the end of the second volume, we find a dissertation on Ossian's Poems; in which, without hesitation, Mr. L. attributes those productions to the pen of their supposed editor, Mr. Macpherson. This opinion is supported by some powerful arguments; among which must be reckoned a strong resemblance discoverable between the *Highlander*, a poem written by Macpherson, (not favourably received by the public,) and Fingal, with respect to both sentiment and expression. The resemblance to other authors, antient and modern, necessarily creates suspicion respecting the origin of these poems. S.R.

ART. III. *Travels in the French Republic:* containing a circumstantial View of the present State of Learning, the Arts, Manufactures, learned Societies, Manners, &c. in that Country. By Thomas Byggé, Professor of Mathematical Astronomy in the University of Copenhagen, and Member of several learned Societies and Academies of Sciences, &c. &c. Translated from the Danish by John Jones, LL. D. 12mo. pp. 430. 6s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1801.

IN consequence of the French Government having invited neutral and allied powers to send deputies to confer with certain members of the National Institute, on the means of establishing an invariable and uniform standard of weights and measures, M. Byggé was deputed for this purpose by the Court of Denmark; and the observations made during his residence in Paris, and in his journey thither, constitute the materials of the present work. Very little room is given to the description of places, the narration of events, or the delineation of manners: since, biassed by his own disposition and pursuits, the author has confined himself to the description of those matters in which he was chiefly interested. From this limitation of subject, therefore, the volume wants the diversity which many books of travels possess; yet it will not, on this account, be unacceptable to those readers who regard the depth of information rather than extent, and love precision more than variety. The necessity which the writers of travels seem to have imposed on themselves, of pronouncing on every object which

which is obtruded on their notice, and on every subject that is worthy of discussion, has been the fruitful source of false judgments and vague notions.

The first part of this volume contains little that requires our notice; and we dismiss it with a solitary disapproving remark, on an opinion concerning the tides (p. 11.), which seems to be a very strange one as coming from a mathematician.

The author's route lay through Osnaburgh, Munster, Wesel, Brussels, Valenciennes, Bouchain, and Chantilly. Osnaburgh and Hanover, he remarks, in a space of 22 years have been little or scarcely at all improved: agriculture has made no advances; and the roads are miserably bad. Here the traveller finds occasion for gratifying his national pride, by contrasting the state of these two places with the appearance of Denmark. At Wesel, contrary to his expectation, (founded on reports industriously propagated,) M. Byggé met with civility from the French officers.—The roads and cottages near Valenciennes are described as being in a deplorable state, in consequence of the ravages of war. In that part of the town which is next to the rampart, whole streets and lanes have been demolished: some buildings levelled with the ground, and others burnt: but the most distressful sight, which Valenciennes presents, is a swarm of importunate beggars, consisting of the youth of both sexes, who have been deprived of employment by the stoppage of the manufactures.—The destruction of the fine park and palace of Chantilly is well known:—but let us hasten the author to Paris, the most interesting scene.

M. Byggé gives a description of the Primary and Normal Schools. In the former, are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, &c. and properly, in the metropolis: but the Provincial Schools are conducted in a slovenly manner. The Normal Schools sprang up hastily from a decree of the Convention, in 1795; and, if we judge from the abilities of such men as La Grange, La Place, Berthollet, &c. they must have been ably superintended. They lasted only a year, and were superseded by the Central and Polytechnic Schools, and the Schools of Public Service. These are next described, with an account of what is taught in them, their professors, &c.; and within this description is contained some notice of those men who have been long known and much celebrated in Europe, for their inventions and the depth of their researches. The following extract relates the examination of the pupils in the Polytechnic Schools:

'When the lectures are closed, which happened this year in Brumaire, there is an examination of all the pupils who have finished their course, and who would wish to enter into the schools destined for the accomplishment of candidates for the public service, in the

construction of roads and bridges, ship-building, &c. or of those who would wish to become masters in other useful arts. For the present examination, the Directory appointed Laplace and Bossut. The first examined the students in the analytic sciences, and the other in mechanics. Those who were to be examined were called up in order, and were obliged to demonstrate without book the proposed theorems, and to solve the problems on a black table; which was considered at once as a proof of talents and readiness. Laplace proposed questions in series, logarithms, and curve lines, in that part of algebra which is applicable to geometry and trigonometry, and in the differential and integral calculi. He proposed every question with much perspicuity and precision, and gently recalled the pupil to the right point, if he happened to wander from it.

'Bossut, in another room, examined in mechanics, statics, hydrostatics, hydraulics, &c. I found most of the pupils answer very well, and with great readiness, difficult problems of the higher mathematics. But it must not be expected, that amongst so many, some would not be found of moderate and some of indifferent talents. Deshautchamps, the director, told me, that Laplace, on the whole, was not well satisfied, and that some of the pupils were not entitled to that attestation, by which alone they could be admitted into the Schools for the Public Service. He lamented, and not without reason, that in those examinations, the young men were left without any occasional assistance to their memory or conception, especially when they found themselves bewildered in algebraic calculations. It is certain, that a wink would often set them right, provided they had understanding and knowledge enough to avail themselves of it, which in itself would be a proof that they had not mis-spent their time. I informed Deshautchamps, that with us public examinations were held in gunnery, navigation, land-surveying, &c.; that part of these examinations was by word of mouth, and part in writing; that all the abstruse theorems and problems were proposed in writing, to which the candidate was required to give written answers; and that this method allowed him time to reflect on the subject, to arrange it in his mind, and to revise and correct his piece as often as he pleased. Deshautchamps highly approved of this mode, and said he would spare no pains to have it introduced. These examinations were public, though I very seldom found that foreigners, and those who were not in some measure connected with the Polytechnic School, were present.'

When the pupil has resided in the Polytechnic School a year or more, and has undergone an examination, he is admitted into the Schools of Public Service and Application; which are intended to teach the construction of roads and bridges, mineralogy, geography, ship-building, artillery, fortification, and nautical affairs.

The buildings appropriated to the Schools for the Construction of Roads and Bridges are said to be disposed and embellished with great taste and magnificence, and furnished with exquisite

exquisite models, arranged in beautiful order. They also contain a mathematical library of 2500 volumes.

Under the description of the Central Museum for Arts, is given the long catalogue of capital pictures brought to Paris by the victories of the French Armies; and sorry are we to learn, by the following passage, that some of these exquisite performances have been injured by their journey *:

'The managers have had the candor to acknowledge, that some of those master-pieces of art are in such bad condition that they cannot be exhibited. This seems tantamount to a confession, that they have been much injured on the journey, if not totally abraded and destroyed. In particular, it is known, that an excellent portrait of Raphael, by Foligno; the Holy Virgin and some Saints, by Bellini; the repast at the house of Levi, by Paul Veronese; the Marriage of Cana, by the same master; St. Peter, the martyr, by Titian; and several of the statues brought from Italy, have suffered greatly from the length of the journey.'

M. Byggé describes several pictures executed by French artists: but apparently he is no connoisseur, and therefore little dependance is to be placed on his opinion of their merits. In his visit to the observatory, an interesting incident occurred:

'When I first visited the observatory, I found below, in a kind of roomy and well furnished cellar, a door open, and an old man sitting at a table. Supposing him to be the porter, I enquired for Mechain, Delambre, and Bouvard. He told me, that Mechain and Delambre were gone to Perpignan, in order to measure a base line for determining a degree of the meridian. The supposed porter had papers before him, containing geometrical figures and algebraic calculations. I asked him, if he amused himself with geometry and algebra? "Yes, in part," replied the venerable man, "but chiefly with astronomy. I was formerly astronomer of the observatory, but am now, as you see, thrust down into this cellar." "Your name?" "*Jeaurat.*" "And I am Byggé, from Copenhagen, who highly esteem you, and am well acquainted with your former labours." It gave me great pleasure to become acquainted with this worthy man, who calculated the *Connoissance des Temps* from 1776 to 1787. Jeaurat, who is the oldest of all the present astronomers of the Parisian Observatory, established and put in order a similar erection at the military school, and is the author of thirty essays in the Memoirs of the Academy. It happened to him, as to many more, during the revolution, to be supplanted by younger rivals of superior interest, though not always better qualified. This astronomer, in his seventy-second year, has nothing to live upon but the salary of the youngest member of the National Institute, which is 1,200 francs, two small apartments on the ground floor, and a little garden. I requested him to have the goodness to shew me the observatory; but he declined it, and deprived me of an opportunity of thanking him. I was then obliged to

* See also our Review for August last, p. 402.

enquire

enquire who superintended the observatory in the absence of Mechain and Delambre? And was answered, Bouvard, adjunct astronomer, who lives in a small separate building belonging to the observatory, and where Mechain formerly resided for twenty years. Bouvard again unluckily was not at home, and I was obliged to content myself with the *Citoyen Portier*, a follower of St. Crispin, who, for the last eighteen months, had made shoes, waited at the observatory, and shewed it to strangers, and I had great reason to be satisfied with his service.'

The Revolution has not poured its evils solely on the partizans of royalty and the priesthood; by its overwhelming torrent, many inoffensive men, lovers of peace and cultivators of science, have been deprived of subsistence:—of which another instance is here related:

'The Cassini, whom I have so often mentioned, began, in 1784, to improve the observatory, to procure new and superior instruments, and to conduct the observations on a better and more accurate plan. He published yearly, from 1785 till 1791, a number or volume of his astronomical observations, on the fixed stars, sun, moon, and planets, calculated and compared with the best astronomical tables, in order to ascertain and correct the errors of those tables. He sent those numbers annually to other astronomers, and he had the goodness not to forget me. He did every thing, in short, that could be reasonably expected from an able, industrious, and experienced astronomer.

'In the midst of Cassini's celebrated career, the revolution took place. Having been suspected by the terrorists, he was driven from the observatory, which he had so honourably conducted, and not only deprived of his office and income, but confined in prison above a year; and he has saved nothing but his life, and a small property, which he inherited from his ancestors, where this worthy man, with his numerous family, exists upon a scanty income. In the opinion of some people, the ambition, envy, and egotism of certain other astronomers, have greatly contributed to drive both Cassini and Jeaurat from the observatory.

'Among other contrivances, Cassini had a foundery built for casting the large astronomical instruments, which he intended to have had constructed for the observatory. This foundery, when France was filled with manufactories of salt-petre, powder, and fire-arms, was converted into a cannon foundery. As relics of that direful and alarming period, eight cannons, twelve pounders, still remain there. But the times are now so much changed for the better, that the votaries of the beautiful and pacific Urania have now nothing to fear from these dispensers of the thunder of Mars; especially as they are not charged, or so much as furnished with touch-holes.'

Of the National Institute, and its members, some account is here given; and the author observes that, when the high talents and inventive powers of the members of that body are considered, it must be granted that it is the first society in the world.

In

In page 351, the translator has used the word *physician*, where we imagine the author means *natural philosopher*. If our language were re-modelled, it would be proper to annex to the term *physician* its true and legitimate signification: but it can now only be properly and unambiguously used to designate a man who is skilled in diseases, and in the means of curing them.—In another passage, the translator informs us that all *epitaphs* are broken to pieces.—Are these errors to be attributed to ignorance or affectation?

The last chapter contains an account of the exhibition of different specimens of French manufactures, arts, &c. which take place on the last two complimentary days of every year; and the volume is closed with the narration of a Fête at which the Directory, Ministers, &c. were present. Here M. Byggé found himself in company with Madame Bonaparte, and several other ladies who are distinguished by their stations or their personal charms; and he tells us that the Chief Consul's wife is 'very handsome,' more so in his opinion than the celebrated Madame Tallien.

We have been able to extract but a few particulars from this work: but they will suffice to manifest to our readers the interesting nature of its contents, the manner of the author, and the style of the translator.

R. Wood.

Art. IV. *Memoirs of Angelus Politianus, Actius Sincerus Sannazarius, Petrus Bembus, Hieronymus Fracastorius, Marcus Antonius Flaminius, and the Amalthei:* Translations from their Poetical Works: and Notes and Observations concerning other Literary Characters of the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries. By the Rev. W. Parr Greswell, Curate of Denton, in Lancashire. 8vo. pp. 211. 5s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

The admirable memoirs of Lorenzo de' Medici, with which the world was lately favoured by Mr. Roscoe, have called attention to the Italian literary heroes of the xvth and xvith centuries, and to the revival of antient lore. The personages, of whom the author now before us has given biographical sketches, are interesting to all lovers of sound learning and classical taste; and though Mr. Greswell has been only a gleaner after Mr. Roscoe in his account of the first and the most extraordinary character in his list, he has contrived to make it both interesting and instructive, to those who may not be previously acquainted with the state of letters at the period in which *Politian* flourished. The narrative concerning this diligent, profound, and elegant critic is, indeed, rendered sufficiently captivating ~~of~~ to readers of taste and curiosity.

Such

Such a luminary as Politian must have shone with double lustre in times of darkness; and the strange stories concerning his private life must have been propagated by zealous rivals, whom the transcendant merit of so great a man would naturally create. Few, however, disputed his superior genius and learning, though he was envied and hated for the possession of them: but he had to encounter, also, political foes, who were still more furious in their animosity. His attention to his patron and benefactor, Lorenzo, and to that family, brought on him all the rage of their inveterate enemies. Yet testimonies remain that he was beloved and admired not only by his patron Lorenzo, and Pico of Mirandula, but by many other persons of virtue and piety, who had more opportunities of knowing his character, and of deciding on his morals, than could be obtained by distant foes, and retailers of hear-say detraction.—Bayle has taken great pains to arrive at the truth of the defamatory tales respecting this celebrated man; and having given both sides of warring opinions, fairly citing his authorities, (as he ever does,) he has defended Politian in the most satisfactory manner, from the aspersions of those who could no otherwise get near him, than by lowering him to their own level by false and malignant aspersions:—but he has never been supported with more force, and praised with more eloquence, than by the author of his patron's life.

Mr. Greswell not only presents us with an outline of Politian's literary history and conflicts, and with translations of many valuable fragments of his Latin poetry, but has also inserted extracts from several of his Latin epistles, which are very characteristic. In a letter to Paulus Cortesius, he expresses his dislike of servile imitation, and asserts his own claim to the merit of originality:

"I hear, (says he,) that you approve of no style of composition, the language and periods of which are not perfectly Ciceronian: (*nisi qui liniamenta Ciceronis effingat.*) For my own part, I find the countenance of a bull, or a lion, infinitely less contemptible than that of an ape: though the latter has more resemblance of the human species. Even of those authors who rank highest for eloquence, each has a style peculiar to himself, as Seneca remarks. Quinctilian indulges a very just pleasantry, at the expense of certain persons, who fancied themselves nearly related to Cicero, because they had contrived to round a period with the words, "*esse videatur.*" You know how Horace exclaims against the servile herd of imitators. In my estimation, they resemble parrots, or daws; that are taught to articulate words, of which they know not the meaning.—The compositions of such persons, are without animation, or energy:—and display neither feeling nor genius: they are replete with dulness and insipidity: as void of meaning, as they are destitute of true taste. "Your style

style is not that of Cicero," it may be said.—"Perhaps not, nor am I Cicero:—but I apprehend my style is my own."

This observation reminds us of what has been related of Dr. Johnson; who, when he was told that, though he had so highly extolled and recommended the style of Addison, yet he had not made it his own model, replied, "Sir! Addison had his style, and I have mine."

In another letter, to Hieronymus Donatus, Politian laments, with a degree of peevish pleasantry, the misapplication of much of his time; 'which he was compelled to bestow on trifles, and in satisfying the petty requests of the impertinent and obtrusive:'

"Does any want a motto for the hilt of his sword: or a posy for a ring: a memento for his bed-chamber *: or a device for his silver vessels, or even his earthen ware:—all run to Politian: so that there is scarcely a wall, which I have not, like a snail, besmeared with the effusions of my brain. One teazes me for catches and glees for a bacchanalian party: another, for a grave discourse, adapted to some particular solemnity: a third, wants a lamentable ditty for a serenade: and a fourth a licentious ballad for a carnival. This fool tells me his love-perplexities, which I sit like a fool to hear. Another wishes for a symbol, which, while it is perfectly intelligible to his mistress, may serve only to perplex the curiosity of others."

We now copy Mr. Greswell's translation of an exhortation to Wisdom, from the Greek of Politian:—we have not compared it with the original, but the lines are vigorous and poetical:

'Εις σοφιαν παρακλησις

'See dreary NOTUS shakes his flagging wing
'Mid scowling skies,—while BOREAS hastes to fling
His snowy influence round: the grove has shed
Its wither'd honours on the mountain's head:—
Even funeral cypress, and the sombre pine,
(Retain'd their verdure) now their fruits resign.
Yet still productive through the wintry scene
The olive blooms, and laurel ever green.
WISDOM! thy plants no blights of age consume,
Deathless they bud,—and breathe a rich perfume.'

'* Politian's motto for his own bed-chamber, is preserved among his poems.

'*In poste cubiculi sui.*
Blanda quies habitet—duri procul este labores.

'He composed the following for *Jul. Salviatus.*

'*Pectoris interpres—genii domus—hospita curis,*
Cellula sum domini conscia deliciis.
Hic faciet te Juno patrem, Cytherea maritum,
Libertas regem, semideumque sopor.'

Politian was born in 1454 at Monte Pulciano in Tuscany, and died when only 40 years old: an inconsiderable age for the accomplishment of such various literary labours as embalm his memory! Having undertaken to teach Greek and Latin publicly at Florence, he had pupils of distinction from all parts of Europe; and Lorenzo de' Medici confided to him the education of his children, among whom was Leo the Xth. He was one of the first collectors of Greek and Latin MSS. and became, in aftertimes, the model of critics and commentators on antient authors, in his elegant and judicious observations, illustrations, imitations, and translations into various languages. His own original works, both in verse and prose, are still indisputably at the head of productions in modern Latin.

Giacomo Sannazaro was born at Naples in 1458, and acquired a very exalted reputation by his writings in the Latin language. His poem *de partu Virginis*, his *Elegies*, and *Piscatory Eclogues* in Latin, and his *Arcadia*, in Italian, have long been and still are highly esteemed by his countrymen.

Pietro Bembo, afterward Cardinal, also holds a conspicuous place among the learned of this period. He was born at Venice, in 1470, but was educated at Florence; where he formed his taste, and where his father had been sent on an embassy from the Venetian state. He afterward went to Sicily, in order to study the Greek language under the celebrated *Lascaris*. On the exaltation of Giovanni de' Medici to the Tiara, under the title of Leo X., Bembo, who had acquired great reputation in literature by his writings, both in prose and verse, was appointed by this Pontiff to be one of his secretaries. In his poem intitled *Asolani*, the passion of love is treated with great delicacy in a moral and philosophical point of view. His poetical productions were collected into one volume, and published under the title of *Le Rime*. Among his works, however, that which, at present, is held in the highest estimation by the Italians is intitled *Le Prose*; and, alluding to this work, Apostolo Zeno says that "Bembo was the first who explained to his countrymen the mechanism and construction of their native language." His History of the State of Venice composed in Latin, in 12 books, is written in a style so classical and Ciceronian, that it almost borders on affectation. He was created a Cardinal by Paul III. in 1537, and died in 1547, aged 77.

Fracastorius. The genius of this writer was of so extensive a range, that it embraced almost every art and science. He was born at Verona about the year 1484, and was descended from a very antient and honourable family. Possessing a limited ambition, and being fond of retirement, though by early culture he had acquired such superior knowlege in so many dif-

ferent branches of science, that he may be styled a star of the first magnitude in the constellation which blazed during the age of Leo X., he was indifferent about fame and fortune, and must rather be ranked among *dilettanti*, than among professors in any of the faculties in which he excelled. Medicine seems to have been his favorite study; and 'his fame, as a physician, was widely diffused: but it has been affirmed that he practised entirely without pecuniary reward.' To his other acquirements, he added profound knowlege in natural philosophy; and he was a mathematician, an able astronomer, an excellent poet, and a notable musician. His *Syphilis* is the most celebrated of all his literary productions, and indeed of all the poems that have been written by moderns in the Latin language. Mr. Greswell has given a masterly translation of a considerable extract from this truly philosophical work.—Fracastor died in 1553.

This volume next presents us with an amiable character of the Latin poet, *Flaminius*, one of the ornaments of the golden age of Leo. He was a native of Imola in Romagna, and was born in 1493. He was honoured with the friendship of Fracastor and Bembo, and was loved and esteemed by all their literary friends. Being heir to no considerable fortune, he was patronized in a most liberal manner by Cardinal *Alessandro Farnese*, nephew of Paul III., who is represented as one of the most enlightened and virtuous characters of his time; and 'we find (says Mr. G.) our poet expressing his gratitude in several of his Latin poems.' He had a delicate constitution, and had arrived only at his 57th year when he terminated his vital journey.

'The Latin style of Flaminio is commended for its purity. His poems combine a graceful facility of manner, and an agreeable turn of expression, with such a degree of spirit as renders them more than ordinarily interesting.

'ODE TO MORNING.

'From the Latin of Flaminius.

'In blushing beams of soften'd light
AURORA steals upon the sight:
With chaste effulgence dart from far
The splendors of her dewy car;
Chear'd with the view, I bless the ray
That mildly speaks returning day.

'Retire, ye gloomy shades, to spread
Your brooding horrors o'er the dead;—
Bane of my slumbers, spectres gaunt,
Forbear my frighted couch to haunt!
Phantoms of darkness, horrid dreams,—
Begone! for lo! fair MORNING beams.

'Emerging

'Emerging from the incumbent shade,
Her lustre chears the brilliant mead:—
Haste, boy,—the tuneful lyre,—I long
To meet the goddess with a song;—
Haste, while the muse exerts her powers,
And strew her smiling path with flowers.

'The violet charg'd with early sweets
Fair MORN! thy chearful presence greets;
The crocus lifts her saffron head,
And bloomy shrubs their odours shed;
Ah! deign our incense to inhale
Borne on the gently-swelling gale.

'When MORNING's charms the song inspire,
Be mine to wake the warbling lyre;
Oh, waft, ye breezes, to her ear,
The mingled strains of praise and prayer:
Bid her approve our faint essays,
And teach the offer'd gift to please.

'For ah! thy beauties to pourtray,
Fair mother of the infant day,—
What time in mildest splendors drest
Thy lucid form appears confest,—
Still must the admiring bard despair,—
O nymph—superlatively fair!

'Thy crimson cheeks a blush disclose
More vivid than the opening rose;
Thy softly-waving locks unfold
More lustre than the burnish'd gold;
The envious stars their lights resign,
And Luna's beam is lost in thine.

'Mortals had lain, without thine aid,
Ingulph'd in night's perpetual shade:
The brightest colours but display
A lustre borrow'd from thy ray;
And every grace that art can boast
Without thy genial help were lost.

'Fast bound in Lethe's dull embrace,
'Tis thine the sluggard to release;
Thou wak'st to life the torpid mind,
To deathful slumbers else consign'd:
And pleas'd to share thy tranquil smile,
Man with new vigour meets his toil.

'Betimes the sprightly traveller wakes:
The sturdy ox his stall forsakes,
Patient his sinewy neck to bow,
And bear the yoke, and drag the plough;
His fleecy charge the shepherd leads
To graze beneath the sylvan shades.

'Lull'd

'Lull'd in his fair one's gentle arms,
The lover if thy voice alarms;
If with regret the attractive couch
He leaves and blames thy near approach,
Still let him deem thy call unkind,
And cast the "lingering look behind."

'His be the illusive joys of night;
My boast shall be the chearful light:
Give me to watch the orient ray,
And hail the glad return of day;—
And long, oh long—ye Pow'rs divine
May such reviving joys be mine!'

The *Amalthei* were three brothers, who flourished in the earlier part of the sixteenth century, and were possessed of similar literary abilities.—As, however, we cannot dwell longer on this agreeable and amusing work, having already bestowed on it more attention than we can always afford in analysing so small a volume, we shall conclude our account with recommending it to the perusal of all those lovers of literature, who are curious in exploring every vestige of the productions which contributed to illustrate the happy æra of the *Medicean family*. We are sorry that critical integrity obliges us to qualify our praise by censure of any kind: but, in perusing these compositions, our ears have been frequently offended by dissonant rhymes, which deform verses that in all other respects are beautiful. A few may be specified for the author's consideration:

Embrace } Essays } Ear } Leads }
Release } Please } Prayer } Blades } These are good rhymes only in Ireland.

Defile } Smile } These are provincial rhymes.
Soil } Toil } In Cheshire and Lancashire, smile is pronounced *smoil*.

Lore } Couch }
Hour } Approach } These are rhymes no where.

Dr B...y.

ART. V. *Poems chiefly Sonnets*, by the Author of Translations from the Italian of *Petrarch*, *Metastasio*, and *Zappi*. 8vo. pp. 72. 3s. sewed. Robinsons, &c.

THE author of this volume appeared before us in the year 1795, but only as a translator *: now he comes forwards as an original writer, but still *alla Petrarca*.—We have often confessed that we were not partial to the structure of the sonnet: which requires so many qualities of difficult attainment, that, out

* See our xviiith vol. N. S. p. 429.

of Italy not one composition of this sort in a thousand realizes the description which Boileau gives of it, when he says that "the god of verse himself measured its numbers and cadence, prohibiting the admission of one feeble line out of the fourteen of which it consists, and not suffering a word that has already occurred in it to be repeated." Another obstacle arises from the arrangement and quality of the ryhmes, two of which only are admitted in the first eight verses. In the Italian tongue, in which similar terminations are so numerous, good sonnets abound: but even in that language, "a chain of noble ideas, expressed without affectation or constraint, is required, with rhymes which present themselves naturally, and with a good grace."—When Englishmen first read a sonnet, their ears are generally dissatisfied. The disposition of the rhymes is so different from that to which we have been accustomed, that we never enjoy this texture till we have habituated ourselves to bear the disappointment primarily excited.

Obscurity also seems to belong to the sonnet, which is seldom clear at the first reading; and the poems before us do not appear to be deficient in that characteristic. As the IVth sonnet may be regarded as one of the best, and the most intelligible, we shall present it to our readers:

'Has she not charms to warm the coldest breast?
Has she not grace that every charm endears?
Has she not sense beyond her tender years,
Sense but by trembling modesty repress'd?
Why then does reason still a doubt suggest?
Why bid me watch each impulse that appears,
Each thought that she betrays, each look she wears,
And hope to find beneath some lurking pest?
O when shall she at length, unrivall'd queen,
Boldly assert her worth, and make me see,
Adorning, yet unstain'd, the world's gay scene:
Better at once a very slave to be,
Than buy by low distrust, and jealous spleen,
This poor precarious boon of liberty.'

The complaints of the author in most of the other sonnets are rather dark; apparently alluding to private transactions, not illustrated by any outline of his history. His great model, Petrarca, had but one subject of sorrow, and one mistress: but the present writer's sufferings and disappointments are numerous and multiform.

In sonnet v. the expression, 'but when to death we go,' is prosaic; and

'No mad attempt to which we *can't* be wound,'

is not very good prose. *Can't* is a vulgar colloquial contraction, not a poetical elision.

The

The VIth may be numbered among the best of the sonnets: but the VIIth ends with another *can't*—which might have been thus avoided:

'Virtue may pity me, but not arraign.'

We transcribe the sixth:

'Ah! boast no more to cure love's pois'nous smart,
Ye traitors to your cause, ye faithless Nine!
Yourselves disarm us first, then point the dart,
You but to quicken it, the sense refine.
Softly while you your magic strains impart,
Her charms around my inmost fibres twine;
As melts the tuneful note, so melts my heart,
Till lost in am'rous dreams it sleeps supine.
Thus all dissolving in ideal bliss.
Too soon I'm waken'd to substantial pain:
Mem'ry recurs, and all her furies hiss;
Yet, though I wake, 'tis but to dream again:
So close the Muses league with her in this,
She prompts their numbers, they her pow'r maintain.'

The revival of capital letters at the beginning of every substantive, we apprehend, will not be approved by the printers, if it be adopted by authors. Since the force of every verse or period lies in the substantives, the capitals indeed prepare the reader for energies both in prose and verse: but the printer had rather that his page should look well, than that it should be well understood; and the rejection of aukward capitals is certainly favourable to symmetry. The restriction of these large letters to proper names, and to the beginning of a period, or of a line in poetry, has now so long obtained, that we, who were Capitally educated, should not be pleased with the look of the page, if thus altered and deformed.

The mixture of the singular and plural pronouns *thou* and *you*, in the same short poem, we can never pass uncensured: (see Sonnet III.) since it must be regarded as a mark of indolence or of bad taste. The extension of one verse into another, and the breaks by a kind of cæsura in the middle of a verse, are here also too frequent, even if intended as imitations of Petrarca. In his sonnets, he seldom, if ever, admits more than two of these breaks: but the author before us, who is professedly of this Italian school, has sometimes four in a single sonnet (as in the XVIIIth.), which makes his verse appear like hobbling prose. In sonnets XIX. XX. XXXVI. and XXXVII. we found the road far from smooth.

In the verses, p. 40, on the death of his brother, the writer's sorrows are poured forth in clear and uninterrupted streams. His eloge, also, on the power of verse in mitigating

woe, in heightening friendship, and in embellishing virtue, is just and pleasing. Our readers shall judge:

' Is there who asks what boon awaits the Muse?
Is there who doubts of verse the heav'nly pow'r?
Such, if he ne'er have felt his genius tow'r,
Or drunk with thirsty lip Castalian dews,
Ask, if e'er virtue deign'd her nobler views
For him to open, or her gifts to show'r?
Ask if he e'er have prov'd, in some sad hour,
The lenient balms which friendship can infuse?
For all that friendship, all that virtue owes *
Lives in the Muse; with her th' enraptur'd bard
In secret tells, in secret sooths his woes;
With her each social joy more pure is shar'd,
From her each gen'rous sense exalted flows,
All that the sage has taught, the hero dar'd.'

The sonnets (pp. 59 and 60) on the approach of spring after a long winter, as well as the stanzas on returning to Oxford, (p. 67) have considerable merit; and a spirit of poetry appears in many other pages of the volume, which we have not room to specify. The disapprobation, therefore, which we have expressed in some parts of this article, must be considered as applying to the particular faults by which it was excited, rather than as general censure of the poetical demerits or deficiencies of the author.

Dr B...y.

Art. VI. *A Treatise on Singing*; explaining, in the most simple Manner, all the Rules for learning to sing by Note, without the Assistance of an Instrument; with some Observations on Vocal Music, interspersed with original Examples, Solfeggi, Airs, Duettos, &c. &c. selected and compressed from the most eminent Authors, both ancient and modern, particularly some beautiful Vocal Pieces of Sacred Music, from the MSS. of Jomelli and Sacchini, never before published, in the Collection of the late James Harris and W. B. Earle, Esqrs. Salisbury; with Directions for a graceful Management and Delivery of the Voice. By Joseph Corfe, Gentleman of his Majesty's Chapels Royal, and Organist of the Cathedral at Salisbury. Folio. 10s. 6d. Sold at the Music Shops, and at Salisbury.

This book has been mislaid and forgotten, or we should sooner have taken some notice of it; for, though the title-page (or rather table of contents) has no date, we recollect that it has been in our possession a very considerable time.

In the quotation which occurs at p. 1, we are surprized to

' * All that virtue owes] i. e. owns. Shaksp. Othello.
——that sweet sleep
Thou owedst yesterday.'

see that an Irishism had escaped so elegant a writer on his art as the late Mr. Avison; when, in speaking of the pleasure received from sounds, he says,—" it is their peculiar and essential property, to divest the soul of every unquiet passion, to pour in upon the mind a *silent joy!*'——the *silent joy* of sound must be a *dear joy*. This little slip of the pen excepted, the passage is elegant and striking.

Mr. Harris's eulogy on vocal music is admirable; and Dr. Beattie's discriminations spring from the feelings of no vulgar mind.—In p. 2d, at the bottom, for *antient*, we should read *old*. By *antient*, we understand nothing younger than Boethius, the last writer who was enrolled with the antients. Morley and Peacham are moderns, compared with writers of the preceding century.

In speaking of singing in *time* and *tune*, we apprehend that the author will not quite satisfy fastidious vocal critics, who are attendants on the opera, and are accustomed to Italian singing, or to performers of the Italian school.—The *curling* of the notes is not an expression to be found in the musical technica; though we have somewhere seen or heard the old fashioned graces of the 16th century compared to the *curls* of Sir Cloudesley Shovel's wig in Westminster abbey.

We should not have understood that to sing *gracefully* meant to embellish a song with *graces*, if Mr. C. had not admitted us into the secret. The gracefulness of singing we have been accustomed to refer to personal carriage, ease, and exemption from grimace; and the graceful posture, mentioned soon afterward, explains what is meant by *singing* gracefully. Tosi's remark on a duet, which was *torn into atoms* by singing too *gracefully*, might lately have been applied in the case of a duet of Marcello's sacred music.

We fear that Mr. Corfe's definition of *voce di testa* will not be very well comprehended, when he talks of the voice '*striking* from the throat to the head.' *Voce di testa* means a voice which is formed in the *larynx*, and passes through the nose, or teeth, instead of coming from the chest.—The *anticipation*, which Mr. C. recommends, is exactly what foreigners call the *English brogue*.—Many of his definitions, however, are correct and useful, and given on indisputable authority.

Mersennus, who is mentioned at p. 7, was a French *minime*, or monk, not an Italian; and therefore the expression *Padre Mersennus* is not correct. It should be *Père Mersenne*.

At p. 11, we meet with conjecture for conjecture. We believe that the Italians changed *ut* to *do*, in order to have a syllable that ended in an open vowel, instead of the *gag* t, and the

distortion of the mouth which the Italian u occasions, like our oo.

We come now to the plates; having nothing to say to the gammut, time-table, or other characters, which are and must be in all elementary books.

In plate 10. duet IV. are two broken phrases; one of 5 bars, and the other of 15; a violation of the present rules of symmetry.

Plate 11. line 2. bar 1. The last note in the second bar of the second treble is made D instead of C, by the printer forgetting to draw a line through it. The composition of this little duet is not very masterly. The F♮ rising to G in the 5th bar, and the 7th resolved on the 4th and 8th bar, are neither pleasant nor consonant to rule.

Plate 14. How is the 4th to C natural prepared? 2d line, bar 7², F is not a part of the preceding chord. If the B in the base were figured $\frac{6\sharp}{5}$, the fourth would be properly prepared: but we rather think that the G𝄪 in the treble should be Ab.—In the example of bravura, where is the singer to take breath in the first 5 bars? We see no opportunity for it, without breaking the ligatures or the divisions, till the middle of the 6th bar. A great singer might perform the first 5 or 6 bars with one respiration: but a young singer, unless a *diver*, could not swell the minims and perform 3 bars without drawing breath. There is nothing like elegance in these examples: but they are composed of *every-day* passages, which must be learned first or last; and though they are so plain and common now, they might have been deemed elegant a hundred years ago.

The compositions from Jomelli and Sacchini are still charming; though the style of music is so changed from what it was when they were composed, that they seem to belong to a different system of sounds. Not one chromatic passage is to be found in them! All plain John-trot Diatonic! We have now, however, had such a glut of semitonic dainties and *kickshaws* (*quelques choses*), that we return to plain roast and boiled with double pleasure.

In plate 35. bars 5 and 6, and 7 and 8, are two 5ths plump and unqualified in the air by Anfossi. What will Mr. Corfe's brother-organists say to them? All that *we* shall say of them is that they offend against rule more than against sensation.

Plate 36. line 2, bar 5, for b read c. 2d note. Ib. l. 4. b. 1. for *pan*, in the words, r. *pian*. Ib. l. 1 and 2, the words

words of the 3d and 2d bars should be printed thus: *lacci al cor.*—The same, plate 38. *Lacci al* make but two syllables.

Chi lacci al cor non hà.
Who has no chains at his heart,
Or, Whose heart is free.

Mr. Corfe's book would be very useful in teaching the choristers of a cathedral, and would be sufficient for that purpose: but it is too elementary for a singer elsewhere; because more than mere time and tune would be required of singers out of the pale of the church, and *that more* can perhaps be acquired, only by example and imitation. Who could describe, in a book of instruction, the expression of a Pacchierotti in only singing plain notes?—On the whole, the work should scarcely bear the pompous title of a *Treatise* on Singing: the *Accidence* may as well be called the *Art of Poetry:* for what does it teach more than the musical accidence, or the first elements of practical music?

The author's mode of numbering the intervals from a key note, as well as naming them in solmisation, is an useful expedient. It will likewise prepare a student for thorough-base.—The lessons are all useful for time and tune: but no thing more.

Dr B...y.

ART. VII. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.* Vol. V. Part I. 4to. pp. 116. 5s. sewed. Cadell and Co. 1800.

THIS small publication contains only five papers, of which we shall give an account according to the subjects to which they relate.

CHEMISTRY *and* MINERALOGY.

Account of certain Phænomena observed in the Air-Vault of the Furnaces of the Devon Iron Works, together with some practical Remarks on the Management of Blast Furnaces. By Mr. Roebuck; in a Letter to Sir James Hall, Bart.——This paper commences with some observations made on condensed air in the air vaults of the Devon iron works near Alloa, in Scotland; from which it appears that the plan of blowing furnaces by means of an air vault is a very efficacious method of equalizing the blast, provided that the blowpipe be made sufficiently large, and that too much air be not allowed to escape at the safety-valve.

Mr. R. then proceeds to observe that a great part of the power of the blowing machinery, in blast furnaces, is frequently misapplied in general practice, by throwing air into furnaces with much greater velocity than is necessary: but in

such a case, if this velocity be to a certain degree diminished, the same power, by a proper adjustment of the blowing machinery, will become capable of throwing into the furnace a proportionably greater degree of air; and consequently, if the quantity and intensity of heat in blast furnaces be in proportion to the quantity of air decomposed by the process of combustion, without regard to its greater velocity, the produce of such furnaces must thus be much increased.

Mr. R. had an opportunity of proving the truth of this assertion, by an experiment which he thus relates:

'A system of management, of which I did by no means approve, was adopted by the other partners of the Devon Company, soon after the works were begun to be erected; and, in the prosecution of it, they ordered their second furnace to be put in blast, without permitting those measures to be taken that were necessary to provide and maintain a sufficient stock of materials; and also without allowing their blowing machine to be completed, according to the original design, by the addition of its second boiler. As might have been expected, a trial of several months to carry on two furnaces, with only half the power of steam that was necessary, and an inadequate stock of materials, proving unsuccessful, the Company, as a remedy, instead of making up the above deficiencies, ordered one of the furnaces to be blown out, and stopped altogether. This improper measure, however, afforded me the opportunity of immediately putting in practice the plan I have mentioned.

'When one of the furnaces was stopped, the other continued to be blown by a blow-pipe of $2\frac{3}{4}$ inches diameter, and the produce of the furnace, for several weeks thereafter, was not 20 tons of iron *per* week at an average. The engine at this time was making about 16 strokes a minute, with a stroke of the air pump, about 4 feet 8 inches long; but when I altered the diameter of the blow-pipe, first to 3, and immediately after to $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches diameter, and regulated the working gears of the engine, so as to make a stroke of 5 feet 2 inches long, and about 19 strokes in a minute, on an average, the produce was immediately increased. It continued to be, on an average of nine months immediately after this improvement, at the rate of 33 tons of iron *per* week, of as good quality as formerly; for during this period, from the 21st November 1795 to July 30, 1796, this one furnace yielded 1188 tons of iron. No more coals were consumed in working the blast engine, or other expences about the blowing machine incurred, and therefore no more power was employed to produce this great effect. It is also of much importance to remark, that the consumption of materials, from which this large produce was obtained, was by no means so great as formerly. The furnace required very considerably *less fuel, less ironstone, and less limestone*, than were employed to produce the same quantity of iron by the former method of blowing; and according to the statements made out by the Company's orders, as great a change was effected in the economical part of the business.

'From

'From the success of this experiment, so well authenticated, and continued for several months, I am led to be of opinion, that all blast furnaces, by a proper adjustment of such machinery as they are provided with, might greatly and advantageously increase their produce, by assuming this as a principle, viz. "*That with the given power it is rather by a great quantity of air thrown into the furnace, with a moderate velocity, than by a less quantity thrown in with a greater velocity, that the greatest benefit is derived, in the smelting of ironstones, in order to produce pig-iron.*" However, it is by experiment alone, perhaps, that we can be enabled to find out the exact relations of power, velocity, and quantity of air requisite to produce a *maximum* of effect *.'

Experiments on Whinstone and Lava. By Sir James Hall, Bart. F.R.S. and F.A.S. Edin.——We are here informed that these experiments were suggested to the author many years ago, when he was employed in studying the geological system of Dr. Hutton, by the following plausible objection to which that system appears to be liable:

'Granite, porphyry, and basaltes, are supposed by Dr. Hutton to have flowed in a state of perfect fusion into their present position; but their internal structure, being universally rough and stony, appears to contradict this hypothesis; for the result of the fusion of earthy substances, hitherto observed in our experiments, either is glass, or possesses in some degree the vitreous character.

'This objection, however, (continues Sir James) loses much of its force, when we attend to the peculiar circumstances under which, according to this theory, the action of heat was exerted. These substances, when in fusion, and long after their congelation, are supposed to have occupied a subterraneous position far below what was then the surface of the earth; and Dr. Hutton has ascribed to the modification of heat, occasioned by the pressure of the superincumbent mass, many important phenomena of the mineral kingdom, which he has thus reconciled to his system.

'One necessary consequence of the position of these bodies seems, however, to have been overlooked by Dr. Hutton himself: I mean that, after their fusion, they must have cooled very slowly; and it appeared to me probable, on that account, that during their congelation, a crystallization had taken place with more or less regularity, producing the stony and crystallized structure, common to all unstratified substances, from the large granite, to the fine grained and almost homogeneous basalt. This conjecture derived additional probability from an accident similar to those formerly observed by Mr. Keir, which had just happened at Leith: a large glass-house pot, filled with green bottle glass in fusion, having cooled

'* If Q be the quantity of a fluid, issuing in a given time through an aperture of the diameter D, V its velocity, and P the power by which it is forced through the aperture: then the area of that aperture being as D^2, the quantity of the fluid issuing in the given time will be as VD^2, or $VD^2=Q$.'

slowly,

slowly, its contents had lost every character of glass, and had completely assumed the stony structure.'

In 1790, Sir James Hall began his experiments; and he found that he could command the result which had accidentally occurred at the glass house: for, by slow cooling, the bottle-glass was converted into a stony substance; and this again, when melted and rapidly cooled, was restored to its original state of glass;—so that the same substance assumed the stony or the vitreous character, according to the mode of its cooling.

Sir James was afterward induced to make similar experiments on whinstone; (under which name, he includes the substances distinguished in other countries by the terms of basaltes, trapp, wacken, grünstein, and porphyry;) and, after several trials, he completely succeeded with this also: since, according to the mode of cooling, he obtained either glass, or an intermediate substance, the appearance of which he compares to the liver of an animal;—and, lastly, by cooling the melted mass very gradually, he obtained a substance differing in all respects from glass, and in texture completely resembling the whinstone.

In order more fully to prove that these effects resulted entirely from the mode of cooling, Sir James made some additional experiments, in which he first reduced the whinstone to solid glass, and, after a second fusion, converted this glass into the stony substance resembling the whinstone. This substance, or artificial whinstone obtained from the glass, he distinguishes by the name of crystallite.

The author then proceeds to give an account of some trials made with seven varieties of whinstone from different places; the results of which confirm what has been already related. We shall therefore pass on to the second part of the paper, which contains experiments on six varieties of lava from Italy and Iceland.

Before he relates these experiments, Sir James makes some observations on lavas in general; and, speaking of solid lavas, or those which form the interior parts of the currents, he says:

'When these solid lavas are compared with our whinstones, the resemblance between the two classes is not only striking at first sight, but bears the closest examination. They both consist of a stony basis, which frequently contains detached crystals of various substances, such as white felspar and black hornblend. The analogy between the two classes seems to hold through all their varieties; and I am confident that there is not a lava of Mount Ætna to which a counterpart may not be produced from the whinstones of Scotland.

'This resemblance in external character is accompanied with an agreement no less complete in chemical properties.'—

'M. Dolomieu and Mr. Kirwan, though they differ widely in many respects, agree in believing, that lavas have never been acted upon by a heat of sufficient intensity to produce complete fusion; and endeavour each, by an hypothesis peculiar to himself, to account for their fluidity.'

By quotations from the works of these two gentlemen, it appears that M. Dolomieu believes that the heat of volcanos has but little intensity; and that the fluidity of lavas is produced by a species of dissolution, or by a simple dilation, which permits the parts to glide over each other; or perhaps by the help of some other matter, which serves as the vehicle of fluidity.—Mr. Kirwan, however, adopts only the latter opinion; adding that the matter, which promotes fluidity, plainly appears to be no other than sulphur and bitumen.

Sir James Hall then observes that these suppositions are both founded on the belief that, in our fires, nothing but glass can be produced from a lava after complete fusion; which, if taken for granted, would certainly render very difficult the explanation of the phænomena of actual eruptions by means of the known agents of nature: but, continues the ingenious Baronet, in the subsequent paragraph,

'The experiments already described supersede the necessity of supposing any thing different from the common course of nature; for they afford analogically an easy solution of the difficulty, by shewing that glass is not the only result of fusion, and that whin, a substance like lava, when cooled slowly after fusion, resumes its stony character.'

In order, however, to ascertain the truth of these conclusions, some experiments on lavas were performed: of which we regret that the particulars cannot here be stated; and that we can only observe, in general, that the results perfectly correspond with those which were afforded by the whinstones. The crystallites obtained from whinstone and lava were frequently less fusible than the original substances; and Sir James observes that, when the melted glasses were crystallized in the temperature of 22 of Wedgwood's pyrometer, they crystallized rapidly, and formed what he calls the liver crystallite infusible under 30: but, when crystallized in a higher temperature, they formed a stony substance like a common lava, or whin, fusible only at 35.

The paper concludes with some remarks on the formation of lavas, and of the substances contained in them; after which, we find a table shewing the relative fusibilities of the original substances employed in the above experiments, as well as those of the different glasses and crystallites obtained from them.

We

We need not here enter into any discussion of Dr. Hutton's Theory: but, independently of this or of any other system, it must be evident that Sir James Hall's experiments are truly valuable and important; since they reveal the hitherto occult cause which produces the stony character of lavas, and present to chemists and naturalists a series of new and curious facts relative to the fusion of earthy substances.

A Chemical Analysis of three Species of Whinstone, and two of Lava. By Robert Kennedy, M. D. F. R. S. & F. A. S. Edinburgh.——The whinstones and lavas examined by Dr. Kennedy were part of those which Sir James Hall, assisted by Dr. K., subjected to the experiments that have been just noticed. In the beginning of this paper, we find the author's general mode of analysis exemplified by a description of the analysis of the basalt of Staffa: but, as this does not appear to be essentially different from that which is usually adopted by modern chemists, we shall omit the particulars.—By his analysis, Dr. K. obtained from 100 parts of the basalt of Staffa,

Silex - -	48
Argil - -	16
Oxide of iron - -	16
Lime - -	9
Moisture and other volatile matter	5
	94

The loss, therefore, amounted to 6 per cent.; and Dr. Kennedy, having remarked nearly the same loss in other similar analyses which he had formerly made, began to suspect that some saline substance existed in these stones; which suspicion was corroborated by their considerable fusibility. By some subsequent experiments, he ascertained the presence of soda; and he describes the method employed to obtain the soda, and to determine its quantity.

Dr. K. first tried the effects of sulphuric acid in a boiling heat: but, although this experiment was continued in one instance even so long as 18 hours, he found that not more than two or three parts of soda could thus be separated.

'It appeared necessary, therefore, (he observes) to try other methods; and after some consideration it occurred to me, that if the powdered whins could be exposed, while red hot, to the vapours of the sulphuric acid, also in a red hot state, its power in separating the whole of the alkali from the earthy bases of these substances, would probably be greatly increased in so high a temperature. I succeeded in applying a red heat both to the powdered stone, and to the acid at the same time, by the following means:

'Some of the basalt of Staffa being mixed, in very fine powder, with three parts of sulphuric acid, the mixture was evaporated slowly to dryness in a sand bath. The dry mass was then heated gradually to redness, and kept in the fire for one hour. It was next powdered, and boiled in water; and the water, being filtered, was treated with carbonate of ammonia, which threw down a small quantity of a brownish precipitate. After separating this precipitate by filtration, the liquor was evaporated to dryness, and the sulphate of soda, which was left, was purified in the manner already described, and heated red hot. It amounted to 9 parts for every 100 parts of the basalt employed.

'In this experiment, the sulphuric acid was first united to a part of the lime, of the argil, and of the iron, contained in the stone; and afterwards, when the mass was exposed to a red heat, the acid was driven off partly or wholly from these, and applied in red hot vapours to every part of the powder; by which its action appears to have been rendered much more powerful, as 9 per cent. of sulphate of soda was produced: and by the same process, so simple and easy to execute, I got from the rest of the substances, to be mentioned in this paper, from 8 to 11 per cent. of sulphate of soda, although, when they were merely boiled in the acid, the quantity of this salt never exceeded 5 or 6 per cent.

'As the proportion of acid and alkali in neutral salts has not been hitherto determined with certainty, the quantity of soda in these whins cannot be exactly known. But it is probable that 9 parts of sulphate of soda, dried by a red heat, do not contain less than $3\frac{1}{2}$ or 4 parts of pure alkali; which must therefore be considered as the weight in 100 parts of the basalt of Staffa: and as $3\frac{1}{2}$ or 4 parts of soda, when added to the sum of the earths and iron, amount nearly to the 100 parts of the stone employed in the analysis, this calculation may be reckoned very near the truth. For the same reasons I think it likely, that the greater part, or the whole of the soda, was obtained from the basalt by the process which has been last described.'

Dr. K. remarked, in the course of his experiments, some traces of muriatic acid; the quantity of which he therefore ascertained in the usual way, by means of nitrate of silver.

According to the results of the different processes, it appears that the three species of whin and the two lavas are thus composed:

1. *Basalt of Staffa.*

Silex,	48
Argil,	16
Oxide of iron,	16
Lime,	9
Moisture, and other volatile matter,	5
Soda, about	4
Muriatic acid, about	1
	99

2. *Whin*

2. *Whin of Salisbury Rock.*

Silex,	46
Argil,	19
Oxide of iron,	17
Lime,	8
Moisture, and other volatile matter,	4
Soda, about	3.5
Muriatic acid, about	1
	98.5

3. *Whin of the Calton Hill, near Edinburgh.*

Silex,	50
Argil,	18.50
Oxide of iron,	16.75
Carbonate of lime,	3
Moisture, and other volatile matter,	5
Soda, about	4
Muriatic acid, about	1
	98.25

4. *Lava of Catania. Ætna.*

Silex,	51
Argil,	19
Oxide of iron,	14.50
Lime,	9.50
Soda, about	4
Muriatic acid, about	1
	99

5. *Lava Sta Venere, Piedimonte. Ætna.*

Silex,	50.75
Argil,	17.50
Oxide of iron,	14.25
Lime,	10
Soda, about	4
Muriatic acid, about	1
	97.50

After these statements, Dr. K. observes that

'The results of these analyses shew that whins and a certain class of lavas, taken from remote quarters of the globe consist of the same component elements united in each nearly in the same proportion. The only circumstance, in which they materially differ, is the loss of some volatile matter in the fire, which is peculiar to the whins alone.

'We need not now be surprised at the facts mentioned by Dolomieu, and others, of soda being found about volcanos, or upon the surface of lavas; as it has been thus shewn to exist in these substances in combination with their earthy bases.'

At

At the end of this paper, we find an account of some experiments which this ingenious and accurate chemist has performed with various sandstones or grits; and which prove that these also contain some soda, mixed with a portion of muriate of soda or common salt. The foregoing analyses require no comment: but, in testimony to the accuracy of Dr. K., we must observe that his analysis of basalt (as to the proportion and quality of the alkali,) has been fully confirmed by some late experiments of M. Klaproth.

Hatch.

Philosophy *and* Mathematics.

Investigation of certain Theorems relating to the Figure of the Earth. By John Playfair, F. R. S. Edin. and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh.——From a natural disposition in the mind of man to assign to objects the form which it most easily conceives, the figure of the earth was supposed by antient astronomers to be spherical: but this conjecture was refuted by the observations made by some astronomers, who were deputed by the Parisian Academy of Sciences to measure degrees of the meridian at the pole and at the equator. The increase of the degrees of the meridian, from the equator to the pole, being incontestably proved, the idea of the spherical form of the earth was abandoned; and since the ellipse is, after the circle, the most simple of the re-entering curves, the earth was imagined to be a spheroid formed by the revolution of an ellipse round its smaller axis. Nature, however, does not accommodate herself to our conceptions: "The subtlety of nature (says Lord Bacon) surpasses the subtlety of man many degrees." Subsequent observations shew that the earth is *not* an ellipsoid; and there is even reason for supposing that it is not a solid of revolution, and that the two hemispheres are not the same on each side of the equator.

This subject of the earth's figure is considered in the present paper by Mr. Playfair; who appears rather unwilling to abandon the simple hypothesis of the ellipsoidal form. After some introductory remarks on the local circumstances which may induce error in the measurement of arcs of the meridian, he gives the analysis of what he calls new rules for the measurement of large arcs. The first formula for the length of an arc of the meridian, extending from the equator to any latitude φ, is

$$a\,\varphi - \frac{c}{2}\left(\varphi + \frac{3}{2}\,\text{sin. } 2\,\varphi\right)$$

This formula is obtained by first deducing the value of the radius of curvature: but it also easily follows from the form given by M. Le Gendre, (in his "*Memoire sur les Intégrations par*

par arcs d'Ellipse,") for the length of an elliptic arc of a very small excentricity.

The second form is deduced by measuring the arcs perpendicular to the horizon.

After having applied his formulæ to the computation of the ellipticity, Mr. Playfair says:

'The above compression, if the remarks already made be well founded, is much too great, being more than double of what was obtained from comparing the whole arch of the meridian measured in France with the whole of that measured in Peru. At the same time it is right to observe, that all the other comparisons of the degrees of the meridian, with those of the curve perpendicular to it, made from the observations in the south of England, agree nearly in giving the same oblateness to the terrestrial spheroid. For this circumstance, it is certainly not easy to account; the unparalleled accuracy with which the whole of the measurement has been conducted, makes it in the highest degree improbable that it arises from any error; and even if errors were to be admitted, it is not likely that they should all fall on the same side. The authors of the *Trigonometrical Survey* seem willing, therefore, to give up the elliptic figure of the earth; but before we abandon that very natural and simple hypothesis, it may perhaps be worth while to attend to the following considerations.

'In the part of England, where the measures we are now treating of have been taken, the strata are of chalk, and though of great extent, are bordered, on all the sides that we have access to examine, by strata much denser and more compact. Toward the west the chalk is succeeded by limestone, and that limestone by the primitive schistus and granite of the west of Devonshire and of Cornwall. On the east we may suppose that something of the same kind takes place, though the sea prevents us from observing it, as the chalky and argillaceous beds extend in this direction to the coast, and probably to some distance beyond it. Now the meridian of Greenwich may be considered as dividing the tract of country, occupied by these lighter strata, into two parts, in such a manner, that the plummet being carried to a distance from it, either east or west, approaches to the denser strata, and is of course attracted by them, so that the zenith is forced back, as it were, to the meridian of Greenwich, and does not recede from it, in the heavens, at so great a rate as the plummet itself does, on the earth. Hence the longitudes from this meridian, estimated by the arches in the heavens, intercepted between the zenith and the said meridian, will appear less than they ought to do; and too much space on the surface of the earth will of consequence be assigned as the measure of a degree. In this way D′ is made too great; and we may suppose the circumstances such that D, on going north or south, is not enlarged in the same proportion; hence $\frac{D''-D}{D'}$ will be augmented, and of course $\frac{c}{a}$ will be represented as too great. This explanation may perhaps appear very hypothetical, and it is certainly proposed merely as a hypothesis. It is a hypothe-

sis,

sis, too, that lays claim only to a temporary indulgence, as it is proposed at the very moment when it may be brought to the trial, and when, by a further continuation of the survey toward the north, it will probably be determined how far the distribution of the strata of this country affects the direction of gravity. It will indeed be curious to remark what irregularities take place on advancing into the denser strata of the north. The limestone and sandstone strata of the middle part of the island will succeed to the chalk of the south, the primitive and denser strata still occupying the west, at least at intervals, as in Wales, Cumberland, and Galloway. Further to the north, that is, beyond the Tay, the strata become entirely primitive, most of them of the densest kind, and in the interior of the island, with a very few exceptions, continue the same to its most northern extremity. In the survey of Britain, therefore, several situations must occur where the plummet, passing from lighter to denser strata, ought to give indications of some irregularities in the direction of the gravitating force. It will be seen hereafter how far these conjectures are verified by experience.

'A remark, that is in no danger of being reckoned hypothetical, is, that the conclusion derived from the comparison of degrees of the meridian, with degrees of the circle perpendicular to it, becomes of necessity more liable to error as we advance into higher latitudes. The reason is, that whatever error is committed in determining the magnitude of D′—D, must be multiplied into the square of the secant of the latitude, in order to give its full effect in changing the value of the fraction $\frac{c}{a}$. For it has been shewn, that $\frac{c}{a} = \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{D'-D}{D'}\right) \sec^2\varphi$; now, if we suppose the error committed in ascertaining D′—D to be in all cases the same, the error of the fraction $\frac{D'-D}{D'}$ will also be in all cases nearly the same, the denominator D′ being but little affected either by the supposed error, or by the change of latitude. But this error, which may thus be considered as a constant quantity, when multiplied into $\frac{1}{2} \sec^2\varphi$, gives the variation or error in $\frac{c}{a}$, which error therefore increases, *cæteris paribus*, as the square of the secant of the latitude; so that, on approaching the pole, it increases without limit, and is ultimately infinite. Comparisons of this kind may therefore be expected to give results the more accurate the nearer they are to the equator, under which circle they will be the most accurate of all.' Here, again, however, another circumstance must be taken into consideration, viz. that the method of ascertaining the differences of longitude by the convergency of the meridians, so convenient in surveys of this kind, is applicable only in high latitudes. In a trigonometrical survey, therefore, of a country lying much farther south than Britain, a different method of ascertaining the longitudes of places must necessarily be adopted.'

The theorems next investigated are those which determine the figure of the earth from the measures of degrees of the

curve perpendicular to the meridian, in different latitudes. In the latter part of his memoir, Mr. P. considers which of the several methods for finding the value of the compression is, under given circumstances, to be preferred.

This paper is very perspicuously composed, and must be interesting to those who are at present engaged in the trigonometrical survey of Great Britain.

A new Method of resolving Cubic Equations. By James Ivory, Esq.——No algebraic form has hitherto been discovered, consisting of finite terms and free from impossible quantities, which represents the root of a cubic equation. Cardan's solution, it is known, has its irreducible case; and it may be extended to all equations by introducing a geometrical construction:—that is, the value of the expression

$$\sqrt[3]{\frac{r}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{r^2}{4} - \frac{q^3}{27}}} + \text{\&c. may, when } \frac{r^2}{4} \text{ is} < \frac{q^3}{27}$$

be expressed in terms of the cosine of an arc. This extension of Cardan's rule is effected by what geometricians call, the analogy subsisting between the measures of ratios and angles *. Hence it has been long known to mathematicians that, by Cardan's formula, and by the trisection of a circular arc, or by two geometrical constructions, all cubic equations might be solved; and the author of the present new method seems only to have put what had been before discovered under a somewhat different form. If $\tau = \text{tang } \varphi$, rad. $= 1$, and $z = \text{tang.} \frac{\varphi}{3}$, then $\tau = \frac{3z - z^3}{1 - 3z^2}$; which, reduced to the form of an equation, is $z^3 - 3\tau z^2 - 3z + \tau = 0$.

Again; if, in an equilateral hyperbole, two straight lines be drawn from the centre cutting off sectors, as 3 to 1, and intercepting respectively on a tangent line at the vertex parts τ and z,

$$\text{then } \frac{1-\tau}{1+\tau} = \frac{(1-z)^3}{(1+z)^3};$$

which, reduced to the form of an equation, becomes $z^3 - 3\tau z^2 + 3z - \tau = 0$.

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* "*De cubicarum æquationum radicibus dudum ab Analystis observatum est; vel eas exprimi posse per Cardani regulas, atque adeo per duarum mediarum proportionalium inventionem; vel per divisionem arcus circularis in tres æquales partes, si forte fuerint inexplicabiles per memoratas regulas. Hoc animadvertit Cartesius, sed et ante Cartesium idem observavit Franciscus Vieta sub finem Supplementi Geometriæ. Exhinc autem aperte colligitur, qualis sit ordo naturæ transeuntis ad anguli trisectionem a trisectione rationis.*"

To

To the one or the other of these two forms, all cubic equations may be reduced.

We have already said that the principle of Mr. Ivory's solution is *not* 'new:'—not a single additional step is made in the doctrine of equations. It is moreover to be remarked that the solution, as given, is by no means direct; and *practically*,—that is, when the numerical value of particular cubic equations is to be exhibited,—nothing appears to be gained by it.

from 159.
R. Wood.

ART. VIII. *Sketches for Country Houses, Villas, and Rural Dwellings;* calculated for Persons of moderate Income, and for comfortable Retirement. Also some Designs for Cottages, which may be constructed of the simplest Materials; with Plans and general Estimates. By John Plaw, Architect. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Taylor. 1800.

APPROPRIATE edifices must improve the beauty of rural situations; and we are very solicitous of encouraging all judicious attempts to elucidate and diffuse those principles of taste, which ought to pervade the mind of the country-gentleman and the architect, in the erection of villas and cottages. The town-house and the country-mansion have distinct characters. In the former, the best application of a limited and formal space is the chief point to be considered; and in order to obtain the requisite accommodations, we are obliged to pile story on story: but in the latter, this necessity does not exist:—here, also, we have choice of situation; and respect is to be paid to prospect and scenery. The object of the architect, therefore, in this case, should be to make his operations harmonize with the beauties of nature; and in doing this he should always consult the genius of the place. He should be particularly careful not to copy those square masses, which necessity obliges him to erect in the streets and squares of great cities. Elegance of outline should be studied, as well as internal convenience; and here a wide field is opened for the display of taste. Not only in large mansions, but even in the humblest cottages, taste may be exhibited; and it is with the commendable design of assisting gentlemen in the judicious expenditure of their money, that the work now before us, and similar preceding publications, have been offered to them.

Mr. Plaw does not agree with some of his brethren, who have recommended the mis-shapen cottage, or country-house, which consists of incongruous parts. Poverty and ignorance associated have produced buildings of this kind: but he is of opinion that they are not objects for our imitation.

'I am aware (says he) that some persons think dwellings on an humble scale, and cottages, ought to be irregular in their forms, and

broken in their parts, taking certain structures for examples, which, in my opinion, should rather serve as beacons of danger, warnings of bad taste. What man of genius would think of building a new house, having the patchwork and bungling appearance of an old one? Such, to be consistent, will no doubt add the props and shores usually attendant on such structures.'

This well-meant hint ought to be duly considered, lest ideas of the picturesque should degenerate into absolute deformity. Mr. P. offers designs constructed on the principles of symmetry and correspondence of parts; and some here exhibited, even on a small scale, seem to unite both beauty and convenience. While he condemns patchwork and incongruity, however, we were surprized to see him (in plate xi.) designing a cottage possessing some internal comfort, and having a handsome bow with gothic windows, deformed by the rude trunks of trees subsituted for pillars, or rather pilasters, at the angles. This coarse material does not harmonize with the gothic members. It may comport with a shed or a root-house, or with a cottage for a mere peasant, which is to carry the idea of its having been erected by himself: but it is not in character with a building which evinces, in other parts, skill of contrivance and execution.

This work consists of forty-one plates, with explanations of each; and to most of them, *rough* estimates, on a supposed cost of materials, are affixed. The plates are neatly executed, will do credit to Mr. Plaw as an artist, and will assist the student in this kind of architecture. Even though no one of them should be exactly adopted, they may all furnish ideas, and may help to perfect plans which country gentlemen or others may propose to carry into execution. Mooy.

ART. IX. *Christianity vindicated*, in a Series of Letters addressed to Mr. Volney, in Answer to his Book called "Ruins, or a Survey of the Revolution of Empires." By the Rev. Peter Roberts, A. M. 8vo. 5s. Boards. West and Hughes. 1800.

SOME French writers have discovered an inclination for effecting a revolution in the moral as well as in the political world; and under the notion of promoting human happiness, they would subvert Christianity and the fundamental principles of piety. M. Volney has made so bold an attempt for this purpose, in his work intitled "Ruins," &c. (see M. R. vol. vi. N. S. p. 547.) that he merits the severest animadversions from the advocates of Revealed Religion. In consequence, Mr. Roberts has exposed his ignorance and false reasoning, and has vindicated a cause against the attack of an infidel, which wants little vindication when it is fairly exhibited and well understood: but the misfortune is, that what is commonly assaulted

under the name of Christianity bears scarcely any resemblance to the divine system promulgated by Jesus Christ.

We cannot minutely follow Mr. Roberts in his examination of M. Volney. All that our confined limits will permit us to do, on this occasion, is to exhibit a few specimens of the Volneyan system, and of its refutation by the Christian divine. Omitting the doctrines relative to politics, we pass to those respecting theology.

'You, Sir, (says Mr. R., addressing himself to M. Volney,) triumphantly ask, *why are we to pray to a God who is without variableness?* A sophistical question is no great credit to any argument, much less on a serious subject. The absurdity corresponding to the question is your own. If the nature of the Deity be invariable, how or whence does it follow, that there is to be no variety in his actions? Now, Sir, neither you nor any man can prove his immutability to be such as to exclude a variety of action and means to the same end; and on this ground alone prayer is justly addressed to him; not indeed to alter what is decreed, for that would be absurd, but to determine to a particular end what is not previously absolute.'

This common objection to prayer is perhaps more fully combated by the following observations of a late writer: "God's unchangeableness, when considered in relation to the exertion of his attributes in the government of the world, consists, certainly not in always acting in the same manner, however cases and circumstances alter; but in always doing what is right, and varying his conduct according to the various actions, characters, and dispositions of beings. If, then, prayer makes an alteration in the case of the supplicant, as being the discharge of an indispensible duty; what would, in truth, infer changeableness in him, would be, not his regarding and answering it, but his *not* doing this."

Mr. R. thus farther addresses his opponent:

'You assert, Sir, that "there are absolutely no other monuments of the existence of Jesus Christ, as a human being, than a passage in Josephus, a single phrase in Tacitus, and the Gospels." (Note 37.) This, Sir, is not true. There is another passage in Suetonius, lib. 5, cap. 25, another in Pliny's letter to Trajan, besides the *twenty-one* Epistles of the Apostles, and all the passages on the subject in the works of the fathers of the first century, where they abound, and the Jewish Talmud, (see Grotius, on the truth of Christianity, lib. 2. chap. 5.) and yet, Sir, you dare to say, there are absolutely no other. The testimony of Julian you will not surely contest, for though not so early as the others, no one had a better opportunity or power of enquiring into the fact, and exposing it, or a greater wish to do it.

'There is in Josephus *another* passage besides the one you allude to, one which *has never been disputed*, and in which he mentions Christ *as a well known character*. Speaking of St. James, the just, Josephus says, he was the brother, τὸν λεγομενου Χρίστου, *of him* who is called Christ. Antiq. lib. 20. chap. 8. This is full proof *of the real ex-*

istence of Christ upon earth, in the testimony of Josephus himself. And what do you alledge against all these? A sectary of the third century: and what does he say? "All the world knows that the Gospels were neither written by Jesus Christ nor his Apostles." Here then, though he asserts one falsehood, he admits what you contend against, viz. *the existence of Jesus Christ as man.* The Gospels were not indeed written by him, but that two of them were by his Apostles, *all the world*, if I may repeat so silly an expression, is so far from knowing, that it knows the reverse to be the fact, attested by the fathers of the preceding centuries, as may be seen in Grotius, and Burnet, and other writers on the subject.'

Though the present author only terms his work *Christianity vindicated*, he has not abandoned the O.T. to M. Volney's attacks: for he has discussed, with much labour and learning, that writer's bold assertions respecting the Mosaic history. The object of the French traveller is to represent this history as no other than a mythological account or explanation of the constellations, and in course written subsequently to their arrangement. On the other hand, Mr. R. states a variety of considerations to shew that

'The history of the fall must have preceded the arrangement of the constellations; and when to this is added a tradition of a fall from a happy state to a state of moral evil, as universal as ancient history, which from its being found in the new and old world, as well in Mexico as in Egypt, and on the banks of the Euphrates and the Ganges, in Siam and in Japan, and from its uniformity must have been derived from one source, extant before the confusion of languages, it is not a mangled scheme of astronomy, or imperfect surmises formed on a maimed hypothesis, that is to subvert the faith of a Christian.'

While Mr. Roberts was combating a fanciful hypothesis, we think that he ought to have very carefully avoided every thing of the same nature in his own details and illustrations: how far he has done this, we leave our readers to infer from the following extract:

'If the period I have ventured to assume, as that of the delineation of the sphere, be correct, the equinoctial intersection must, at the time of the creation, have been nearly at its entrance into Taurus; and more certainly at the time of the deluge it must have been at the end of its progress through that sign, or so near it as to make the end of the sign the most obvious note of its situation; and hence the ☿, which I believe was the ancient mark of this sign, is easily explicable. Kircher * says, (on what authority I know not) that this mark means, "Divinæ mentis in rerum omnium productione motum ac diffusionem."—*A motion and diffusion of the divine mind in the production of all things.* It may, perhaps, have this signification, as denoting

'* Obelisci Interp. ed. Romæ, 1666, p. 44.'

what

what I believe it does, the new order of things from the flood. The mark is, however, evidently composed of three parts ☋, O, and +, which I would interpret thus: ☋, *a boat;* O, *the earth;* and +, the intersection of the colure and equinoctial; whence it will signify the place of the colure, when a single boat * or vessel was on the earth, i. e. at the time of the deluge. Besides this sign, Kircher has another of half a bull and half a ram, which seems to denote this same epocha of the deluge. The component parts of the above sign have, indeed, since been divided between Taurus and the planet Venus, and the entire applied to Mercury, the symbol of the inventor of science. That Venus was a deity, the symbol of the deluge, is evident from her image as the Dea Syra, which is very nearly the same with that of Vishnoo, in the first of his incarnations. The three signs ♉, ♀, and ☿, do therefore belong to the same event, and that event was the deluge.'

It appears to us that the author is not always sufficiently guarded in his assertions:—but, on the whole, he treats M. Volney with civility; and his strictures merit not only that gentleman's attention, but the consideration of Mr. Thomas Paine, to whose *Age of Reason* they are in part a reply.

Mr. Roberts thus sums up the contents of his Vindication:

'In examining the traditions of various and distant nations, they are found to concur fully in the substance of one original tradition, that their creeds are so far from being contradictory, that in the most decisive particulars they agree in the existence of our Supreme Being, the Creator and origin of all, in his having given a revelation to mankind in the tradition of an age of purity, of a fall, and of the deluge; (in that of the last, so circumstantial as to identify it decisively;) in the promise of a future deliverer, in the prediction of a future life of reward to the good, and punishment of the wicked. In these, Sir, all that have records or traditions of authenticated antiquity agree and confirm the scripture; and prove that in the scripture only is the history clear and express; that in the rest, it is involved but not lost in fable; and we conclude without hazard of a proof to the contrary, firmly and securely, that the scripture history is truly the word of God, that the heavens and the earth unite their testimony to it.'

The doctrines and morality of the Gospel are also vindicated against the misrepresentations of M. Volney; who evidently

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'* If the crescent were erect, I should be inclined to interpret it, *the sun and moon in conjunction at the solstice*, the time when the tropical year may be supposed to have begun periodically; and that Mercury Thoth, to whose name it is now affixed, was the discoverer of it. If it be considered as ♉, the mark of the sign Taurus at the equinox, it will still refer to the time of the deluge. The exposition given in the text seems to me to be the most appropriate.'

views it through a false medium, and condemns under the influence of misapprehension.

A separate half-sheet of corrections and errata is given with this work.

Mooy.

ART. X. *General Biography;* or Lives, critical and historical, of the most eminent Persons of all Ages, Countries, Conditions, and Professions, arranged according to alphabetical Order. Composed by John Aikin, M. D. Mr. Nicholson, and others. Vol. II. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Johnson, Kearsley, &c. 1801.

IT is with pleasure that we see this valuable work, (of the first vol. of which we gave an account in the M. R. for Nov. 1799, p. 241,) in so promising a state of continued publication, according to the usual alphabetic form of productions of this kind.

There was reason for apprehending that the loss of so ingenious and so industrious a contributor as Dr. Enfield might have been severely felt by the gentlemen associated with him in this undertaking: but that loss, great as it undoubtedly was, has been well repaired by his successors to the vacant seats at this Literary Board. The name of Mr. Nicholson will be found in our transcript of the title-page at the head of this article; and that of another respectable character appears in the advertisement prefixed to the present volume, viz. the Rev. Thomas Morgan, of London. By the last named gentleman, the Theological and Philosophical Department will henceforth be filled.

As a specimen of the style and manner of Mr. Nicholson, we may extract the life of the late learned and justly celebrated astronomer, Dr. Bradley:

'Bradley, James, an eminent astronomer, was the third son of William and Jane Bradley of Shireborn in Gloucestershire. He was born in the year 1692, received his early education at a school at North Leach, was admitted a commoner of Baliol-college at Oxford the 15th March, 1710-11, took the degree of bachelor of arts, October 24, 1714, and that of master on the 21st of January, 1716-17. He was ordained a deacon in May, 1719, and admitted to priest's orders in July the same year, by the bishop of Hereford, who made him his chaplain, and gave him the vicarage of Bridstow in Herefordshire. The honourable Mr. Molyneux shortly afterwards procured him the sinecure of Landewy Welfry in Pembrokeshire.

'Mr. Bradley, however, gave the preference to astronomy over the studies of divinity; and this appears to have been the reason why he never enjoyed more extensive preferments in the church than the above. He was encouraged and assisted in his mathematical pursuits by his uncle Dr. James Pound, who at that time resided at Wansted in Essex, where our astronomer began that series of observations which

which led to the great discoveries which have rendered his name so universally famous.

'On the 31st October, 1721, he was chosen Savilian professor of astronomy at Oxford upon the death of Dr. Keil. Upon this promotion, he resigned the living of Bridstow, and also the sinecure of Landewy Welfry, and devoted his mind exclusively to astronomical pursuits. In 1724 he communicated to the Royal Society some observations on a comet which appeared at the end of the preceding year; and in 1726 he communicated to the same body, of which he had become a fellow, a paper respecting some comparative observations on the first satellites of Jupiter, made at Lisbon and in England.

'In the year 1728 he published his theory of the aberration of the fixed stars, the history of which discovery affords an admirable instance of accuracy in observing, caution in the developement of causes, and sagacity in discovering them. His original aim in observing the transits of fixed stars near the zenith was to ascertain their annnal parallax, and by that means not only to determine their distance within certain limits, but afford an experimental proof of the motion of the earth in its orbit. To illustrate this research and discovery in a familiar way, it may be observed, that if a planet be supposed to revolve in a circular orbit round the sun, and its diurnal motion for the sake of simplicity be overlooked, a star in the pole of that circle would not be seen from the planet in a line perpendicular to the orbit, but always in a line inclined towards the sun, on account of the angle of its parallax. And consequently as the planet revolved in one direction, the star would seem to describe a circle in the heaven in the same direction, the diameter of which would be greater, the less the absolute distance of the star. But the result of Mr. Bradley's observations were not such as would have been occasioned by parallax. The deviation of a star supposed to be in the pole of the ecliptic was not towards the sun, but towards the region to which the earth's annual motion was directed at the time of observation. A considerable series of observations and several comparisons of the laws of the phenomena with such hypotheses as seemed most applicable, were required to be made before any deduction could with certainty be established. After the completion of a year, it was found that all the facts were perfectly reconcileable with the assumption of an observable ratio between the velocity of light and that of the earth in its orbit. The allusion of Clairaut serves to explain his notion with admirable perspicuity. Suppose a shower of small particles, for example drops of rain, to fall perpendicularly to the horizon, and a strait tube to be supported in the same upright position; it will then be evident that whatever drops may enter the upper orifice of the tube, will pass clearly through without touching the sides: but if the tube be carried along parallel to the horizon, the drops will not pass clearly through, notwithstanding the vertical position is preserved; but they will strike against the side of the tube. To prevent their striking, it will be necessary to incline the tube towards the same direction as that of its motion, and this inclination must be so regulated that the lower end of the tube shall arrive immediately beneath the place occupied by the

the upper end in a time precisely equal to that employed by a drop of the rain in passing through the tube. That is, to say, the deviation of the tube must be such, that when its length represents the velocity of the drop, the horizontal difference between the positions of its upper and lower end shall represent its own velocity. Or, in mathematical terms, the velocity of the drop to that of the tube will be as radius to the sine of its deviation from the perpendicular. We may now dismiss the gross objects of sense, and instead of the tube substitute the axis of a telescope, and for the drops, the particles of light passing along that axis. If these particles do indeed pass instantaneously as to sense and observation, their entrance and emission from the tube will not perceptibly differ in point of time, and no inclination of the tube will be necessary, whatever may be its perceptible velocity; but if the velocities of the light and of the telescope be comparable, it will be requisite that the tube should be inclined towards the direction of its own motion. Mr. Bradley found that such an inclination is in fact required; and that a star in the pole of the ecliptic would apparently describe a circle of 40″, 4 in diameter round that pole in a year. The half of this is the inclination of the telescope, and its proportion to radius is as 10210 to 1, from which it is deduced, that light employs 8′ 12″ in passing from the sun to the earth. The agreement of this velocity of light with that inferred by Roemer from the equation required to be applied to the motions of Jupiter's moons, according to the earth's position, is a strong evidence of its truth; and shews besides, that the velocities of the direct light of the stars, and the reflected light of the planets, are the same. This apparent change of place of the stars is called their aberration. Its cause has been universally admitted by astronomers, and the conspicuous merit of the discoverer insured him the friendship of lord Macclesfield, sir I. Newton, Halley, and other eminent characters.

'He was appointed lecturer of astronomy and experimental philosophy in the university of Oxford in 1730, the duties of which he performed till within a few years of his death. In 1737 he published in the Transactions some observations on the comet which appeared in the spring of that year. The great Dr. Halley had so much esteem for Mr. Bradley's talents and acquisitions, that he was particularly desirous of his succeeding him as astronomer royal, and even formed the project of resigning in his favour; but was prevented by death from accomplishing his design. On this event, however, he obtained the appointment in the year 1741, and was at the same time honoured with the degree of doctor of divinity by diploma from Oxford. In the year 1744 he married Mrs. Susannah Peach, by whom he had one daughter, who survived him.

'The established fame and honourable situation of Dr. Bradley, caused no relaxation in his beloved studies, nor his industry in observation. In 1747 he communicated another very important astronomical discovery to the Royal Society, of the nutation of the earth's axis, which was printed in the Transactions. The excellent instruments of George Graham in the hands of this great man, whose accuracy and vigilance in ascertaining their limits of error were extreme, served to detect periods of change in the motions of the heavenly bodies,

bodies, which had eluded the observations of every former astronomer. It would lead us too far into the famous theorem of the *Tria Corpora* (*Newton's Princip. I. prop.* 66.) if we were to attempt to give a full explanation of this nutation, of which the existence and quantity were first ascertained by Bradley. He found that the inclination of the earth's axis to the plane of its orbit, which is about 23½ degrees, is not constant, but varies several seconds backwards and forwards, and that the period of this variation is nine years. He determined its cause from the doctrine of attraction.

'If the earth were a perfect sphere of the same density throughout, the attraction of the sun would have no other effect than to retain it in its orbit; but as this is not the case, because the earth is flattened at the poles and swelled out at the equator, we may consider this planet as if it had the figure of a ring, or rather as if a protuberant ring were fastened upon its equator, and influenced its motions. Half of this ring is above the plane of the orbit, and half below that plane. In every case, the nearer half of this equatorial ring will be more, and the remoter part less, attracted by the sun, than according to the medium force which retains it in the orbit; but when the sun is in the plane of the ring, that is to say, at the equinoxes, this inequality will not tend to disturb its obliquity. When the sun is in the solstices, the excess of attraction on the nearest part of the ring will tend to draw it towards the plane of the orbit, while the excess of centrifugal force on the opposite half will have the same effect; and in every other position a like consequence will ensue, though in a less degree. Hence the obliquity of the earth's axis will be twice increased and twice diminished in the course of the year. And as the earth's orbit is elliptical, and the irregularity produced during its course through the shorter 180° of its orbit is not entirely balanced by what happens in the more remote part, the parallelism and obliquity of the earth's axis will be subject to a slow change.

'The minute effect of this difference of the sun's action on the earth is seen in a long series of years in the precession of the equinoxes, and the obliquity of the ecliptic. But the nutation observed by Bradley, which passes through all its changes in nine years, depends on a like difference of the actions of the moon on the nearer and remoter parts of the same protuberance. Though the moon is almost incomparably smaller than the sun, yet on account of its proximity to the earth, this difference amounts to a much greater quantity, as is also seen in the phenomena of the tides. Astronomers are aware that a similar action of the sun upon the moon causes the nodes of the lunar orbit to pass through every point in the ecliptic during about eighteen years. The line of the nodes will therefore arrive at the same position every nine years, and consequently the irregularities of the nutation will all be comprehended within this last period.

'These discoveries, of which the nature of our work could allow but a slight sketch, will show the comprehensive genius of Bradley better than any general encomiums. The Royal Society evinced their sense of the value of the latter discovery, by rewarding him with their annual medal. No man better knew the value and importance of a

good

good instrument; and to him it is that the world is peculiarly indebted for the new naval quadrant, and other instruments set up at the royal observatory at Greenwich by the well known John Bird. At the doctor's request, upon the yearly visitation of the Royal Society, that body represented the advantages of new and accurate instruments to his majesty George II. who, in the year 1748, granted one thousand pounds for that purpose, which was laid out under the direction of an astronomer.

'In this year 1748 he was chosen a foreign member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, and nearly at the same time he became entitled to bishop Crew's benefaction of 30l. a year to the lecturer in experimental philosophy at Oxford. He was also a member of the Academy of Sciences and Belles-lettres at Berlin.

'It appears to have been some time in the year 1751 that the valuable living of Greenwich becoming vacant, was offered to him on the part of the king, on the supposition that it would be particularly convenient on account of its vicinity to the royal observatory. But the unaffected integrity of the doctor induced him to decline this preferment, because he thought "the duty of a pastor was incompatible with his other studies and necessary engagements." The king, however, would not be defeated in his generous purpose, but granted him a yearly pension of 250l. (Feb. 15, 1752). which was continued to his death by his present majesty, and has since been regularly paid to the astronomers royal.

'In 1752 he was elected of the council of the Royal Society. In 1754 he was appointed a member of the Academy of Sciences at Petersburgh, by diploma from the whole body; and in 1757 he was chosen a member of the Academy of Sciences at Bologna. In the same year were published in the Philosophical Transactions his observations on the comet which appeared in the months of September and October that year.

'Dr. Bradley's health continued in general excellent, notwithstanding his unremitting assiduity in the pursuit of his studies and observations. But about two years before his death he became very low spirited, and distressed with an apprehension that he should survive his rational faculties. This calamity did not happen, and it is probable his fears might have arisen from an observation of those lapses of memory which at all times of life occasionally happen to men who keep their faculties too long in a state of exertion, but more particularly to such as are advanced in life, and do not vary their pursuits. He became very infirm in the year 1760, and about the end of June, 1762, he was attacked with a suppression of urine, in consequence of an inflammation of the kidnies, which put a period to his life on the 13th of July following, in the 70th year of his age. He was buried at Mitchin Hampton in Gloucestershire.

'The public character of Dr. Bradley, as a man of science and discernment, is well established by his works. His private character was in every respect estimable. Temperate in his enjoyments, mild and benevolent in his disposition, indifferent to the calls of wealth, distinction, and even of fame, he was indebted to his uncommon merit alone for the friendship and regard of the most eminent men of his time.

time. His manner was engaging and communicative, and his language in conversation clear, impressive, and fluent, though he was rather more disposed to listen than to speak. That he published so little may perhaps be ascribed to his scrupulous accuracy, which rendered him diffident, or more probably to the calm and placid temper of his mind, which did not strongly urge him to solicit that attention he could at pleasure command. His observations made at the royal observatory during twenty years, comprised in thirteen folio and two quarto volumes, unfortunately for the interests of science, were taken away at his death by his representatives, who, upon preparations being made by government for recovering them by process of law, presented them to lord North, by whom they were transferred to the university of Oxford. It is an additional misfortune to the scientific and commercial world that they have remained in the hands of that learned body for upwards of twenty years; and though it is stated that they are in the course of publication, it may yet be long before the astronomical world shall possess them.—*Biogr. Brit. Hutton's Math. and Philos. Dict. Phil. Trans. Bird on Naval Quadrants. Proceedings of the Board of Longitude relative to Dr. Bradley's Observations, 1765 to 1795, published in folio.*—W. N.'

This volume carries us as far in the alphabet as the article *Civoli*, the Painter. Our present engagements do not allow of a more detailed account of it, but we shall not fail to announce the subsequent volumes to the public, as they appear.

G.

ART. XI. Mr. Pennant's *Outlines of the Globe.*

[*Article concluded from pp.* 37—47.]

THE fourth volume of this work presents a view of the Malayan isles, New Holland, and the Spice Islands. A chart is prefixed, which conveys a good general idea of their relative position: but the most correct chart of the isles of the Indian archipelago, hitherto published, was given with the first Number of the Grammar of the Malayan language, a work to which we have recently adverted *: though it is much to be lamented that the minute scale, to which it was very injudiciously reduced, greatly detracts from its utility.

Mr. Pennant commences his survey with the following geological observations, which are applicable to the whole contents of this volume:

'Those who consult the map of this portion of the globe, will instantly perceive the effects of the rapid discharge of the waters after the destruction of the old world by the deluge, aided by volcanic fury. Volcanoes, or vestiges of volcanoes, are to be seen in most parts to this day; amazing caverns, mountains piled upon mountains, with all the testimonies of the mighty confusion; we know not the antece-

* See Rev. for August last.

dent

dent form, but it was evidently shattered by that great event. From the top of the bay of Bengal to the very pole, it swept every thing before it, and left a vast expanse of ocean, uninterrupted by any land, except the diminutive spots of Kerguelin islands, or the lesser speck of Amsterdam and St. Paulo.

'From Cape Negrois, the southern point of Pegu, the waters seem to have been impelled towards the vast Pacific ocean. The isles of Andaman and Nicobar first shew that tendency in a slight degree; all the peninsula of Malacca was affected in a higher. The island of Sumatra follows the curvature of that part of the continent. At Java it begins to shew the fury of the attracted course of the waters towards the east. Java, Cumbara, Timor, the Molucca islands, and New Guinea, were formed by their influence. At New Guinea, the torrent took a southerly direction, and rent into fragments all that part of the primitive world, even to the remotest of the Society islands, which, like the train of a comet, shew the innumerable remnants of land, most evident witnesses of its course. The amazing island of New Holland resisted the force, and continues more worthy of the name of a continent. New Zealand remains divided from all the rest; to the east is sea as far as America, and remote as the pole itself on the south. The north part of the vast Pacific is contracted by the approximation of Asia and America. The crescent of islands from Alaschka to Kamschatka mark the antient union of the present continents. The flood formed, from the south of Kamschatka, the Kuril isles, Matmay, and Japan, Liquejo and Formosa, the Philippine islands, the great Borneo, and all the groups scattered over the ocean to the north-east, such as the Pelew, the Ladrones, and the Carolinas, and the range named after Lord Mulgrave. Such is the hypothetical view of this face of the globe.'

This hypothesis, which seems to imply that most of the islands above mentioned were previously connected, or possibly formed one great continent with the rest of Asia, is but slightly supported by the phænomena adduced. That the longitudinal extent of the islands in the bay of Bengal is generally from north to south, while that of the islands in the ocean is from east to west, may arise from an uniform and constant, as well as by a temporary and violent, impulsion of the circumambient fluid. It might be produced by a sudden influx of waters into the bay, as easily as by their sudden efflux; and there are no traces of volcanic eruptions in the countries which form its limits, to authorize the supposition of any violent propulsion originating in the bottom of the bay.—It is time, however, that we should carry our readers through a few of the islands which form the subject of this volume.

Mr. Pennant commences his survey by an account of Sumatra; an isle which was fortunate in having found, in Mr. Marsden, an historian who left few desiderata relative to its moral, physical, or political condition. 'Some of its mountains are of vast height; Ophir, situated immediately under the

the line, is 13,842 feet high, or two miles, and one thousand and ninety-four yards. No snow is ever seen on it, yet the inhabitants of all the chains are, like those of other Alpine regions, subject to monstrous wens, or goitres; yet these people are not infested with any particular disease, the result of the tumors.' Gold, copper, tin, and coal, are numbered among the productions of Sumatra. Naptha is also found there; and 'saltpetre is procured in abundance out of the vast caverns with which the island is hollowed, and is extracted out of the dung of the swallows called Layang Layang, which build by thousands in the roofs. These seem to be the kind which make the esculent nests.' The latter circumstance, we apprehend, is a mistake.—Buffaloes are used as beasts of draft; a practice which might be advantageously introduced on the neighbouring continent. The wild boar, rhinoceros, and elephant, inhabit its majestic forests; above whose heads a vast variety of the digitated species of quadrupeds play among the lofty branches. 'The Orang Outang is said to be found in Sumatra; which is probable, as he is met with in the adjacent islands.' Tigers are numerous and destructive. The large bird named cassowary is related to the ostrich, 'but is most local, being confined to the torrid zone, and only to that part which includes this island, Java, Banda, and a few others of this great archipelago. It runs fast, is very fierce when in the wild state; grunts like a hog, and will kick violently like the ostrich. Its food is vegetables, but it will swallow iron, stones, or any thing that is offered.' Mr. Pennant relates that the inhabitants of Japan are fond of curious birds, numbers of which are annually imported from distant countries; one unfortuate virtuoso brought a cassowary: but the Japanese, after having surveyed it, pronounced it a bird of ill omen, and obliged the vessel which brought it instantly to carry it back.—Among the vegetable productions of Sumatra, are pepper, (the great staple of the island,) and the *Calamus Rotang*, or walking cane, vulgarly termed Rattan; 'the specific name Rotang signifies, in the Malayan language, a staff, or walking stick.' Bastard cinnamon grows in abundance; camphor is produced, of a superior quality; also the Styrax Benzoin, used in Roman catholic countries as incense; coffee; cotton; and ebony, so highly valued for its beautiful timber;

"*India fert ebenum, molles sua thura Sabæi.*"

On the authority of Mr. Caverhill, Mr. P. considers Sumatra as the Sabadibæ of Ptolemy. We shall take an opportunity of adverting to his remarks on the geography of that writer, when we have attained the supposed boundaries of his know-

lege: but, in the mean time, to avoid repetition, we shall call the attention of our readers to an observation applicable to the inhabitants of all the islands of the Indian ocean, west of New Guinea. It is of much importance towards the formation of an accurate idea of the moral state of these countries, to discriminate between the Malayas who inhabit the coasts, and the aboriginal natives who were driven by these intruders into the interior country. The Pappuan isles, as they are termed from their contiguity to Pappua or New Guinea, seem to have set limits to the wandering courses of the Arabian navigators; who, under the name of Malayas, now occupy the maritime coasts of the Indian isles. No accurate estimation of their relative population can be formed from the researches hitherto made; in the smaller isles, it is probable, they have nearly exterminated the Aborigines: but we are disposed to think that their numbers are still prodigiously inferior to those of the latter; whose origin, if we may pronounce from the vestiges of Sanscrit preserved in the Malayan language, and in the names of places, must have been from the continent of Hindustan. Respecting these people, little is known; the antients stigmatized them with the appellation of anthropophagi; and the same appellation has been bestowed, down to our own time, on the inhabitants of the Nicobar isles, whom we now know to be in the highest degree hospitable and inoffensive. The necessity of resisting the incroachments of their Malayan neighbours may have contributed to render them fierce, vindictive, and suspicious: but those travellers, whose conduct was kind and conciliatory, do not appear to have considered them as barbarous. The fable of the lion and the picture should never be totally forgotten, in perusing travels into countries termed barbarous; if lions had been the painters, the representation would have been reversed; and if these supposed barbarians were writers, they would in all probability appear "more sinned against than sinning." The predatory ferociousness of the Malayans, and the crafty and systematic cruelty imputed (with what truth we know not) to the Dutch, might naturally excite in the people, who were exposed to their outrages, a spirit of resentment and vengeance.

The author's account of Java contains little besides an appalling description of the cruelties of the Dutch; a representation which we hope is exaggerated. The fatal effects of the climate of Batavia, however, are scarcely susceptible of exaggeration: but that of the deadly tree, the *Upas*, we know to have been derived from a suspicious source. It has, however, given birth to some fine verses inserted in the work before us:

'Where

'Where seas of glass with gay reflexions smile,
Round the green coasts of Java's palmy isle;
A spacious plain extends its upland scene,
Rocks rise on rocks, and fountains gush between;
Soft zephyrs blow, eternal summers reign,
And showers prolific bless the soil in vain!
No spicy nutmegs scent the vernal gales,
Nor towering plaintain shades the mid-day vales;
No grassy mantle hides the sable hills,
No flowery chaplet crowns the trickling rills;
Nor tufted moss, nor leathery lichen creeps,
In russet tap'stry, o'er the crumbling steeps;
No step retreating on the sand impress'd,
Invites the visit of a second guest;
No refluent fin th' unpeopled stream divides,
No revolant pinion cleaves the airy tides;
Nor handed moles, nor beaked worms return,
That mining pass th' irremeable bourn.
Fierce, in dread silence, on the blasted heath,
Fell Upas sits, the Hydra tree of death.'

The vast island of Borneo is divided from the northern coast of Java by a sound, which is between two and three hundred leagues in breadth, and its circumference is estimated at two thousand miles; so that it may justly be considered as the largest island in the world. It is of a pyriform shape; its shores are rude, with projecting promontories; and it is separated by the equator into two unequal portions. The far greater part of Borneo next to the sea, especially the northern, consists of swamps, covered with forests of trees of numberless species and great sizes, which penetrate for scores of miles towards the centre of the island. These unstable muddy flats are divided by rivers, which branch into multitudes of canals, and are the only roads into the interior parts. Lofty mountains are said to rise in the middle of the island; many are volcanic, and often occasion tremendous earthquakes. 'The whole coasts,' says the author, 'are in the hands of Malayans, Moors, Macassars, and even Japanese, who have perhaps for centuries driven the antient inhabitants into the interior parts.' The first three nations here enumerated are one and the same, distinguished by a general (or religious) and a particular designation.—'The Aborigines are of a black complexion, a middle stature, with long and black hair, and generally better featured than the Guinea negroes, feeble in their bodies, and very indolent and inactive.'

In the list of quadrupeds, we find the Ourang Outang; of which 'there appears,' says Mr. Pennant, 'to be two species, one that never exceeds two feet and an half in height. Mr. Beck-

mann speaks of some species growing to the height of six feet; he bought a young one, which was stronger than any man in his ship, but it died before it was a year old. The Ourang Outang is found also in Java; Hamilton saw one in that island which was four feet high, and mentions a smaller species called Aumpals. He confirms the account of the greater species; of its lighting a fire, and blowing it with its mouth; and of its broiling a fish to eat with its boiled rice, imitative of the customs of the human race.'

The author observes that, 'at a small distance to the north, about lat. 7°, begins the vast groupe of the Philippine Islands; these are much more probably the Maniolæ of Ptolemy, than the lesser Andaman, which D'Anville supposes them to have been. These islands were known to the antients by the Indian name, which is still retained in Manila. Ptolemy speaks of them as ten islands immediately beyond the tres insulæ Satyrorum, or Borneo.' Here, then, terminates the supposed knowlege of the antient geographer: but it is manifest that the materials, with which he was furnished, have been so totally defective in those distant regions, as to preclude the possibility of identifying his stations. Mr. Pennant has adopted the opinions contained in a paper by Mr. Caverhill in the Philosophical Transactions; and he considers Sumatra as Sabadivæ; Borneo, and the neighbouring isles, as the tres insulæ Satyrorum; and the ten Maniolæ, as the Philippine isles. On the map, Ptolemy has placed the Sabadivæ nearly in the situation of Sumatra, but he makes them three distinct islands; the three islands of the Satyrs are placed in the gulph of Siam, north of Cattigara, and seem to correspond better with the small islands off the east of Cambodia, than with Borneo; particularly as the adjacent promontory (*Satyrorum promontorium*) has obviously received its name from the same cause. The Maniolæ, on the other hand, form a groupe southwest of the *Insula Bonæ Fortunæ*, or Great Andaman; a situation widely remote from the Manillas, and which appears to justify M. D'Anville's supposition. It must, at the same time, be confessed that this position does not accord with the description given of them by the same geographer; who, after having mentioned the *tres insulæ Satyrorum* in the gulph of Siam, adds, "*Feruntur et hic aliæ insulæ continuæ esse numero decem, Maniolæ appellatæ.*" Yet this expression does not necessarily imply that they lay beyond the islands of the Satyrs, as Mr. Pennant states. The only one of these islands, of which the situation may be considered as completely identified, has not been introduced by the present author, viz. the island of Java. "*Jabadii,*" says Ptolemy, "*hoc est, hordei insula,*

feracissima enim hæc insula dicitur, et preterea auri multum efficere." This enigma remained inexplicable till Sir William Jones furnished the solution, by mentioning that Jaba, or Java, signifies barley in Sanscrit, and hence the *hordei insula* of the antient geographer. Most of the names of these isles, both antient and modern, are derived from the Sanscrit; *Sabadivæ*, the company islands, three being arranged opposite to each other; *Manila*, the isles of gems; *Cumbava*, the isles shaped like a water jar; and *Mallica*, (the Moluccas), isles abounding with the nyctanthes, or Indian jasmine; for which see Rumphius, in his *Flora* of Amboyna.

'The celebrated bread-fruit, the *soccus lanosus, granosus, et sylvestris*, of Rumphius, is frequent in these islands. It begins to appear in the eastern parts of Sumatra, where it is named by the Malays, Soccum Capas; again in Prince's Island, about Bantam, and in Malacca; and, finally, in all the islands to the east, and from thence to Otaheite, and many others in the South Sea.

'Celebes is prodigiously mountainous and lofty; the mountains increase in height towards the central parts, and are generally richly cloathed with wood. In Macassar, as well as in Mindanus, are some active volcanoes. Mr. Loten informed me that none of the Indian islands had such grand and beautiful scenery. It abounds with rivers, which spring high in the mountains, and precipitate down vast rocks, among a sylvan scene of lofty and singular trees. The lakes and more still parts of the rivers give security to numberless water fowls of the larger and more clumsy kinds, which retire there by fear of the crocodiles, which haunt the lower and marshy parts. These are not deserted by the lesser palmated birds, such as ducks and teal, which, being quick-sighted and nimble, easily evade the approach of the enemy.'

Near to Java, we find the isles of Madura and Bali, names celebrated in the Puranas. 'When the Dutch touched here, (says Mr. P.) in their first voyage of the year 1595, they found them governed by a king, who appeared in great state, was attended by his guards, and drawn in a chariot by milk white oxen. The great men were carried in their bamboo palanquins, and lived in the highest luxury. The religion was then paganism; and the women, as in India, devoted themselves to the funeral pile on the decease of their husbands.'

Stretching eastward from Java, a chain of isles extends almost to the vicinity of New Holland. The latter, Mr. Pennant contends, should be named a continent, on account of its large dimensions. 'America itself is but an insulated continent, superior as it may be to that of New Holland.'—Here the author recapitulates the various navigators by whom this island was visited, from the beginning of the seventeenth century, to the formation of the settlement at Botany Bay in

1787. 'In 1627, the famous Commodore Peter Nuyts sailed along the coast,' (the south east coast) 'and made many attempts to land, but was always repulsed. Is not this a proof that the southern shores of New Holland possess a superior population, and a superior valour in the inhabitants, to all the rest of the known parts of this vast country.'—The selection of New Holland, for the settlement of our convicts, is far from happy, in the opinion of Mr. P. who thinks that the superior fertility of one of the isles of New Britain would have rendered it a preferable situation.

'It is a popular opinion, (says the author,) that the expence of transportation of the convicts amounted to three hundred pounds a man, including the provision made for their cloathing and support for some small time after their landing. I was in hopes that two pamphlets published by Debrett in 1791, 1792, under authority of goverment, would have confirmed or refuted the report, especially as one of them pretended to give an account of the expences; but the detail is so very imperfect, that I am not able to satisfy either my own or the reader's curiosity. The immense expence we have been at in sending provisions from hence, from the Cape of Good Hope, and from China, gives reason to imagine that our colony has been at the point of starving.'

We now proceed to the *Faunula* of New Holland, as the work can afford no information relative to the recent circumstances of our infant colony.—The genus of Opossum, it is said, furnishes more species than any other found in this country, and some of them of most singular and wonderful kinds. We find five species mentioned, including the gigantic and spotted kangaroos, and the kangaroo rat. The flying opossum has membranes extending from leg to leg like a flying squirrel, and the fur is exquisitely fine. Many species of parrots are found in New Holland; and pigeons are very numerous. 'The superb warbler has forehead and cheeks of the richest cœrulean colour; from the cheeks a narrow band of the same surrounds the hind part of the neck, belly white, all the rest of the plumage black, tail very long; a most beautiful bird: from Van Diemen's Land, and other parts of New Holland.' This bird is of the passerine genus.—'The black swan is in size superior to the white. The bill is of a rich scarlet; near the tip is a small yellow spot: the whole plumage is of the most intense black, except the primaries and secondaries, which are white; the eyes black, the feet dusky; it is found in Hawkesbury River, and other fresh waters near Broken Bay, and has all the graceful action of the white kind.'—The cabbage-tree, or *Areca sapida*, (which may be cut through with a single stroke of the axe) is the only tree of any use in building. The very largest

largest trees, lofty and spacious as they appear, are so brittle that, when sawn, they fall in pieces.

From New Holland, the author proceeds north to the Arrau Isles. 'We are now (he says) arrived within reach of the perfumed air of the Molucca, or famous spice islands, a land of romance, where nature assumes a new shape in picturesque scenery, and in the beautiful and singular form of numbers of the animal and vegetable creation, whether inhabitants of land or water.' The long celebrated Manucodiatæ, or birds of paradise, first begin to appear in these islands; and Mr. P. discusses the question, whether these animals were known to the antients. Few birds are more circumscribed in their limits than these; which are confined within the Papira Islands and that of New Guinea, and are found only from lat. 8° south, to lat. 3° north of the equator, and between longitude 127 and 140.

'They are supposed to breed in New Guinea, and to reside there during the wet monsoon, but retire to the Arrau Isles, about a hundred and forty miles to the east, during the dry or western monsoons. In the east monsoon they moult their long feathers, but recover them in the west. They always migrate in flocks of thirty or forty, and have a leader, which the inhabitants of Arrau call the king: he is said to be black, to have red spots, and to fly far above the flock, which never desert him, but settle where he settles. They constantly avoid flying with the wind, which ruffles and blows their loose plumage over their heads, and often forces them down to the ground, from which they are unable to rise without some advantage: hard showers of rain are equally destructive to them. When they are surprized with a strong gale, they instantly soar to a higher region, beyond the reach of the tempest; there they float at ease in the serene sky, on their light flowing feathers, or pursue their journey in security; during their flight, they cry like starlings, but in the distress of a storm blowing in their rear, they express it by a note resembling the croaking of ravens. When they alight, it is in the highest trees, the king taking the lead; they prefer the varinga parvifolia, on the berries of which these birds and various sorts of parrots feed; some say that they feed on nutmegs, on butterflies, and even small birds; the strength of their claws favours that opinion; yet that circumstance may be requisite to birds, which are always to live perched.'

In lat. 4° 30′ south, lie the Spice Islands, which have received their denomination from Banda, the most considerable. As they are now in the possession of the British, we may hope for a more particular account of them than has hitherto appeared. They seem to have been thrown up by the sea, by the effects of subterraneous fire. Lofty mountains, says the Abbé Raynal, the summits of which are lost in the clouds, enormous rocks

heaped one upon another, horrid and deep caverns, torrents which precipitate themselves with extreme violence, voleanoes perpetually announcing impending destruction; such are the phænomena that give rise to this idea, or assist in confirming it. In Gunongapi, is a volcano which constantly emits smoke, sometimes accompanied by a crackling noise; and the surface of the island is covered with sulphur and chalk. The growth of nutmegs has been confined to three of these islands by the Dutch, who extirpated the trees on all the rest, in order to secure the monopoly.—From a statement published since these isles came into our possession, and long subsequent to Mr. Pennant's sketch, it appears that the islands of Banda contain 5763 inhabitants, of which 119 are Europeans; and the south-west islands contain 38,266, of whom 2322 were converts to the Christian faith. 'Amboyha is about 30 leagues to the north-west of the Banda Isles. This is in respect to cloves, what those are in respect to nutmegs. The Dutch have made it the great and sole plantation of that valuable spice. They destroy with the same zeal all that they can find on the islands within their reach.'—As a more particular and authentic account of these islands has recently been given, by a gentleman employed in the expedition which subjected them to the British crown; and since the history of the aromatic trees which afford the nutmeg and the clove can boast of little novelty; we will leave the Moluccas, and proceed easterly through the islands inhabited by the Papus, and terminated by New Guinea, where Mr. Pennant closes his researches.

The large island of Gilolo is not classed among the Moluccas, though contiguous to them; like them, it abounds in the sago and bread-fruit trees: the first, indeed, is common to all the islands east of Sumatra. The Papua islands stretch hence to New Guinea;—they were visited in 1769 by M. Sonnerat and M. Le Poivre, who were sent from the Isle of France to procure nutmeg plants. These islands, with New Britain and New Ireland, are inhabited by the same warlike race, named Papus. 'The aspect of these people is frightful and hideous; the men are stout in body, their skin of a shining black, rough, and often disfigured with marks like those occasioned by the leprosy; their eyes are very large, their noses flat, mouth from ear to ear, their lips amazingly thick, especially the upper lip; their hair woolly, either a shining black or fiery red: M. Sonnerat imagines the last to be owing to some powder.' The existence of a race of negroes in these islands so remote from any people of the same configuration, and so incapable of navigating from Africa to occupy these sequestered shores, is a circumstance which

cannot

cannot but suggest some singular inferences. Endeavour straights, which separate New Guinea from New Holland, are 10 leagues in length, and about 5 in breadth. Mr. Pennant makes the circuit of the island; 'and thus,' said that venerable and now deceased writer, 'concludes the last great labour of my life.'

This work will be found to contain, perspicuously arranged, much of the information which Europe possessed respecting India beyond the Ganges, before recent and authentic writers elucidated those countries by more ample details. The *Flora Indica*, annexed to the volumes, is copious; and as an abridgement of the labours of the Dutch botanists, it probably is not without its utility. Our numerous extracts supersede the necessity of farther observations.

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Art. XII. *The Christian Preacher;* or, Discourses on Preaching, by several eminent Divines, English and Foreign, revised and abridged; with an Appendix on the Choice of Books. By Edward Williams, D.D. 12mo. pp. 496. 4s. 6d. Boards. Wills, &c. 1800.

This volume would afford materials for more remarks than our confined pages can admit. As a compilation, it will not be expected to display much ability or learning in the editor; yet in its progress it seems naturally to lead to observations and inquiries which might attract attention, but to which we can allot but a very brief notice. Of the seven discourses contained in it, the *first* was written by Bishop Wilkins, under that well-known title, "*The Gift of Preaching:*" but, though it was valuable when it first appeared, it is now almost obsolete. It wears the marks of an author slowly emerging from the clouds and confusion of scholastic terms and divisions, though a careful reader may extract from it some good sense and useful instruction: but it is indeed perplexing, and very tedious. Something of a like kind is to be said concerning the *last* discourse "*On the Composition of a Sermon,*" by the Rev. John Claude; translated and published, several years ago, by the Rev. R. Robinson, of Cambridge; at which time it was acknowleged, with truth, that the performance derived its principal value from the original notes which Mr. R. subjoined; since the work itself is systematical, mystical, and tiresome *. These two articles, with the Appendix, form a principal part of the volume before us.

Of the second and third discourses, which were composed by the Rev. John Jennings, formerly tutor in a dissenting

* See M. Rev. for March 1779, vol. lx i. p. 100.

academy at Kibworth, Leicestershire, the titles are *Preaching Christ*, and *Particular and Experimental Preaching*. They were made public in the year 1723, and received at that time a warm recommendation from the pious and learned Dr. Isaac Watts: indeed, each of them contains truths which merit attentive notice. There can be no doubt that a Christian preacher should endeavour to enter into the power and spirit of that revelation which he has received for his guide, and should enforce each branch of religion and morality by those sanctions and motives with which he is there furnished; yet it certainly may be questioned whether the just and full idea of preaching Christ, or the doctrine of Christ, is here exhibited. The sermons, however, obtained so much reputation, that they were translated into the German language by Herman Augustus Franck, about that time professor of divinity at Halle in Saxony; and a letter written by him on this occasion, to Dr. Watts, forms the fourth essay in this collection, bearing for its title, "*Useful Preaching:*"—it is much in the strain of the foregoing.

Dr. Watts himself appears next in a long extract from his works, here distinguished as *rules of conduct*. After having been conversing with Wilkins and Claude, it is a pleasant relief to read this more easy and well-formed composition; through which a vein of good sense and piety prevails; and which, together with a remaining sermon by Dr. Doddridge, called the *Neglect of Souls*, seems to constitute the best part of the present compilation. Few persons have accomplished more for the assistance and improvement of youth, than these two eminent men; and none were more liberal in exhorting them to guard against prejudice or rashness.

The Appendix is intended as a 'direction to a proper choice of books for the preacher's library.'—It sets out with rather pompous and sounding diction: Polyglotts, Complutensian Bibles, Biblia Luteliana Heptaglotta, &c. &c. are not works which the generality of young divines can much expect to obtain; nor is it *necessary* that they should, since they may by other means have occasional access to them, and from different writers may gain faithful and useful instruction concerning them.—In the progress of this catalogue, which at times reminded us of Doddridge's lectures on books, some character is commonly added; of which we shall give a few specimens. The distribution observed seems, on the whole, to be judicious, commencing with such as are called *preparatory:* among which we see the *General Index* to the *Monthly Review*, and other catalogues of books. In the account of writings relative to the scriptures, we sometimes finda remark which, considering

considering the editor's avowed bias of a party kind, may be deemed fair and liberal. Thus it is said of Gill's Exposition; 'though on the whole a valuable work, it is often prolix and tautological, and sometimes injudicious:'—and, again, of his Body of Divinity it is observed: 'Gill was a learned and pious man, but his notions of moral obligation were not correct, which disposed him too often to *cut* the knot of difficulty, instead of *solving* it, and to deal in round assertions, with slender arguments.' Keach's Key to Scripture Metaphor is mentioned as a work 'which a common-place declaimer will not fail to abuse;'—and this we believe, though we are not intimately acquainted with the book, to be a just remark;—as possibly it may also be that 'a judicious preacher may consult it with profit,' though we think it probable that such an one will incline to reject a great part of it. Indeed the present collector, though sufficiently cautious on some topics, is not extremely anxious to guard the young reader against mysticism; otherwise, as an instance in point, when characterizing Parkhurst's Hebrew Lexicon, he would have reminded him that the Hutchinsonian remarks pervading the volume, however specious, are not to be implicitly adopted. 'Whitby's Commentary on the New Testament,' it is observed, 'may serve to shew what a systematic and bigotted professed Arminian can say on that side of the controverted questions.' Macknight's Commentary receives a cool commendation:' but, it is added, 'his sentiments on some controverted points are to be read with caution;'—no unusual insinuation with this writer, when opinions do not exactly tally with his own! He assents, however, to Bishop Watson's remark relative to the earlier times of Christianity; that, "as interpreters of scripture, the fathers are much inferior to the moderns, but they may be useful examples to us in piety and zeal:" but, though he occasionally appeals to this prelate as an authority, he tells us that, 'his collection of theological tracts contains a large catalogue of books in divinity, without any classification of subjects, and including but a very small proportion of orthodox and *practical* writers.' 'Were I disposed (he says in another place,) to recommend learned ingenuity and critical conjecture, often at the expence of truth, and probably unsanctioned by the discipline of personal deep experience, the commentaries of Mr. (John) Taylor and Mr. Locke might be mentioned.'—*This*, we may with confidence say, is not the language of Dr. Doddridge, some of whose manuscript lectures are here professedly employed. He had a more ingenuous and candid mind. He spoke handsomely concerning writers of this class, and recommended their criticisms to attention.—Notwithstanding these and similar objections, however,

however, we occasionally meet with just and agreeable reflections in this part of the volume. Among the characters given, none stand higher than, and few (if any) so high as, Mr. Whitfield: amid the encomiums on whom, it is said, 'Perhaps no man ever possessed in a higher degree *abilities* for exemplifying the rules of Longinus on the sublime; and considering the nature of his subjects, and the mixed assemblies he addressed, perhaps no one *actually* exemplified them to greater effect.'

We cannot but remark, from the perusal of this volume, that the editor would probably be indignant if he were brought under the necessity of conforming to the dogmata of an establishment, yet that he himself appears to *establish* a mode of faith to which all *ought* to submit. On this narrow scale, books and libraries seem to be of little significance. At the close of his preface, he expresses an apprehension that the work may be condemned as *Calvinistically partial:* but, with the air of triumph, he adds, 'my apology is, that it comports with the views of such men as Wilkins and Watts, Jennings and Doddridge, Franck and Claude, a partiality which suited the taste of men equally illustrious for learning and goodness, the greatest ornaments of the Christian pulpit, and the richest benefactors of mankind.'—Here it is natural to observe that inquiries after truth forbid all partialities, and that we should never forget the poet's well-known maxim,

"*Nullius addictus jurare in verba magistri.*"

Modesty and humility, indeed, should attend all our researches: but human names, however venerable, should not be allowed to overbear our judgment or determine our conclusions.—We cannot dismiss the article without adding that, excepting his Exposition, Dr. Doddridge's works obtain no high commendation from the editor of this volume. Hi.

ART. XIII. *The Rival Mothers, or Calumny.* Translated from the French of Madame de Genlis. 4 Vols. 12mo. 18s. sewed. Longman and Co. 1801.

THE literary reputation of Madame de Genlis is so well established, that the public are readily disposed to anticipate pleasure from every new production of her cultivated mind; and we have satisfaction in acknowleging, after having perused the volumes before us, that disappointment has not superseded expectation. We regret that this ingenious lady should have had reason for complaining of the insidious enemy *Calumny:* but, if she has been enabled to support its injustice with the fortitude inspired by conscious innocence, (such as she describes

scribes to be the recompense of the injured Pauline,) she will not (as a moralist) regret the experience, whatever painful sensations it may have occasioned.

The *Rival Mothers* are two ladies who enter the lists of competition on the subject of maternal affection. If they do not stand on fair and equal ground respecting pretension, since they cannot both be the mother, they meet at least on the point of conduct. Each makes an important sacrifice to the little idol Léocadie:—the sacrifice of *reputation* is offered by one to the preservation of the infant; and that of parental intercourse and endearment is endured by the other, for the *maintenance of her reputation.* Yet, as the latter incessantly demonstrates, by the frequent testimonials of unremitting superintendence, that her heart never relaxes on the affectionate interests of maternal love and duty, Solomon himself might have been puzzled to decide which was the real parent; while the extravagant personal fondness of Pauline might have contributed to impose on even his sagacity.

The narrative of the novel is pleasing and interesting. The characters, indeed, are delineated *à la française;* and exceptions consequently arise against a few occasional tints of unnatural colouring; which, by overstepping the modesty of nature, gives too much the semblance of romance to the work, and is not adapted to that species of writing in which, the author tells us, the story is meant as a vehicle to convey the principles of sound and pure morality. We also differ from Madame de Genlis on the subject of reputation. Her heroine, Pauline, stands chargeable with gross inconsistencies on this head. She is represented as tremblingly alive to general sensibility on the subject of virtue, yet she is apparently indifferent to its appropriate estimation in the opinion of others; and she throws away her good name, "as 'twere a careless trifle."—She is attacked by the grossest calumny;—accused of adultery, hypocrisy, and falsehood;—yet she writes to her friend—'*Do not bewail the loss of my reputation; it is of all the illusions of life, that which I regret the least and despise the most.*' Of what value, then, is the jewel reputation, if such apathy is to be attached to it?—By this indifference to character, Madame de Genlis loses sight of her professedly supreme object, the encouragement and improvement of morals; since the desire of being esteemed by the world, if it ought not to be the *primum mobile* of our actions, must at least be admitted as a stimulating principle, without which the current of virtue would be liable to stagnate. Though often a charming *human creature,* this lady is but too apt to degenerate into a *French court lady;* one moment, we admire her; the next, we despise the formal painted wooden doll.

doll. We turn with disgust from the allegoric garden, the romantic machinery, and the theatrical personifications; and we would also gladly erase the many unnatural events that crowd her novel: yet let us remember that French and English *Nature* differs, and that the author is acquainted only with the former;—whom *we* consider as a degenerate goddess.

The style of these letters is sprightly and animated, bidding defiance to the foul fiend *Ennui.*—The translator of a work of this kind finds it almost impossible to transfuse into another language that spirit and vivacity, with that beautiful and elegant *tour de phrase*, which so peculiarly characterize the French writers of eminence; and mere fidelity produces flatness and insipidity. In many passages, however, the present translator is successful in catching a ray of the author's illuminated pencil; and the version of the ingenious lines with the *double sens*, found in the oratory, is extremely well executed.

Mrs Moo-y.

ART. XIV. *Three Lectures upon Animal Life*, delivered in the University of Pennsylvania. By Benjamin Rush, M. D. &c. 8vo. pp. 84. 2s. 6d. sewed. Printed at Philadelphia. Imported by Mawman, London.

IN these Lectures, Dr. Rush has explained the phænomena of life, on the principles of Dr. John Brown: but he claims the discovery of those principles for Dr. Cullen; and the honour of an inviolate adherence to them, before the rise of the Brunonian system, for himself. To the uniformity of Dr. Rush's opinions, we certainly do not mean to object: but the extent of Brown's obligations to Dr. Cullen, for the origin of his hypothesis, would form a curious subject of inquiry, if theoretical systems held the same rank among the Faculty now, which they obtained in the middle of the last century. Dr. Brown's theory of the action of opium was undoubtedly a mere copy from Cullen's Lectures on the *Materia Medica*, and his excitability probably owed its origin to the Cullenian doctrine of excitement. There is, however, one striking difference between them. Dr. Cullen always inculcated on his pupils, the opinion of an immortal soul; while Dr. Brown's theory of the forced state of animal life is a system of undisguised materialism. Here the worthy American Professor certainly dissents from Brown, and is necessitated to accommodate his philosophical creed as well as he can to his religious belief:—but, if the Brunonian system were proved, the supposition of the connection between soul and body would be not only unnecessary but absurd. If would therefore be in vain

vain for its advocates to concede, in words, that which they take away in fact.

It is not our present purpose to enter on a discussion of the doctrines inculcated in these lectures; since they have long ago been under our consideration, as they came from the hands of their first propagator. We shall only observe, on the author's defence of a proneness to speculation, that theories are now too short-lived, to afford much encouragement for fresh adventurers. One of the most ingenious speculatists of our day has said that "*to think is to theorize;*" and this *dictum* has been often quoted in support of bad reasoning. As well might it be said that *to walk is to dance;* and that physicians ought therefore "*to go to church in a minuet step, vnd come home in a coranto.*"

The doctrines delivered by Dr. Rush, in these Lectures, have not obtained such a preponderance in Europe, as to intitle them to unquestioned acceptance in America. In some points, they are totally erroneous; and in others they are, at least, very doubtful. They cannot, therefore, constitute a proper basis for medical instruction: since primary truths, in this as in other sciences, should be divested of every thing that is hypothetical. We should feel little esteem for the judgment of a mathematician, if he began his elementary instructions with a dissertation on the possibility of squaring the circle:—yet Dr. Rush appears to have fallen into a similar error: since he has ventured to decide on the most difficult problems in physiology and pathology, before he had initiated his pupils in the knowlege of facts universally admitted. The first duty of a Professor undoubtedly consists in making young men acquainted with useful truths; the next, in laying before them a clear view of the opinions which have prevailed respecting those truths. Dr. Rush has mistaken hypothesis for truth, and has instilled prejudices into his pupils, instead of profitable information.

We have deemed it necessary to place this matter in a strong light, because Dr. Rush has done great injustice to the Faculty, in asserting that all improvements in medicine must hereafter proceed from persons who are not medical practitioners; who are not interested, in short, in *the trade.* This odious insinuation can in no respect attach to the profession in Europe. No public body exists, which is less influenced by corporation-motives than the medical men of this country, in particular. They possess an independent spirit of improvement; they are devoted to no sect; and they are the slaves of no authority. It cannot, therefore, become a question, whether such men are not better qualified to improve the difficult

science

science which they cultivate, than general inquirers, who never told the hours by the bed-side of a patient; and who could not anticipate, in theory, difficulties which practice had never offered to their consideration. What may be the state of medical philosophy in America, we do not presume to determine; though we have seen curious specimens of it, in the attestations to Perkins's Tractors:—but we may venture to assert that it will not be materially improved on the plan proposed by Dr. Rush. The intelligent student will still find it necessary to become acquainted with the writings of Hoffman, the Father of Medical Science in modern times; and the judicious practitioner, instead of surrendering his mind to the shackles of system, will only acquire a still greater degree of scepticism in appreciating facts, when a bias to hypothesis is betrayed by respectable authors.

Fer.

ART. XV. *A Survey of the Strength and Opulence of Great Britain;* wherein is shewn the Progress of its Commerce, Agriculture, Population, &c. before and since the Accession of the House of Hanover. By the Rev. Dr. Clarke, Secretary for the Library, &c. to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. With Observations by Dean Tucker and David Hume, Esq. in a Correspondence with Lord Kaimes; now first published. 8vo. pp. 240. 5s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

EVERY political writer is desirous of impressing his readers with the idea, that his mind is actuated by no undue bias; though it is a general remark that scarcely an individual takes up his pen on this subject, who is not in some measure influenced either by gratitude or expectation; and that it is nearly impossible to find a person altogether exempted from prejudices and partialities. In saying this, we do not mean to impeach the integrity of all political authors, nor that of Dr. Clarke in particular. While, however, he makes a part of the civil and ecclesiastical system, we appeal to him whether he ought to speak of himself as 'free from the chains of power.' "His service," we admit, "is perfect freedom," being entirely to his own good liking; and he may truly say that he 'despises to do obeisance to the Baals of popularity;' yet he does not occupy that truly independent ground, which might enable him to assert that he alike despises the gods of the court and those of the populace. It must suffice if, 'without pretending to the spirit of independent truth,' he has endeavoured to give that view of the strength and opulence of his country which appears to him to be just;—and he unquestionably has taken great pains with his present work.

We should be pleased to think that Dr. C. has not flattered us; yet we fear that this is the case; and though we have little

little relish for croaking politics, calculated to oppress the public mind with despair, we cannot approve of any attempts to lead John Bull into *a fool's paradise.* Admitting that the continuation of the contest with France were necessary, and that our commerce has experienced a vast accession; yet, while the Bank deems it prudent to withhold the payment of its notes in cash, while taxes accumulate, while the necessaries of life are at enormous prices, and (which is worst of all,) while the numbers of the poor and consequently the poors-rates are increasing in almost every parish in the kingdom, it is an outrage on common sense to talk of our *unexampled prosperity and happiness* *. Our vast exertions have required an increase of taxation, but ought our National Debt to be reckoned in the estimate of our wealth and resources? Might not a gentleman, in taking an account of his property, as well enumerate the mortgages on his estates as so many additions to his riches? The real opulence of a country consists in its population, its productiveness, and the industry of its inhabitants; and its prosperity is manifested in the general diffusion of the necessaries and comforts of life. Extended taxation, aided by paper circulation, will enable the calculator to make a most splendid exhibition of growing riches: but a nation is not, in fact, four times richer than it was, because the quarter of wheat, which formerly sold for forty shillings, has obtained in the market 8l.; nor is the land-owner made richer by doubling the rent of his land, when the product of this measure is taken from him by the increased price of necessaries, and by accumulating assessments. It is trifling with us to invite us to estimate, politically, the value of land and its produce by its money-price. We need not tell Dr. Clarke that, when the clergy calculate for themselves, they do not proceed in this manner. The *pro* and the *contra* ought to be fairly exhibited. Let us see how far Dr. Clarke does this. He gives an ingenious abridged history of the rise, progress, and effects of commerce, in which he informs us that our trade has increased thirteen fold: but with this representation he exhibits none of the evil effects of this growth of commerce in drawing us into wars, and in raising the price of the necessaries of life. He does not contrast the present state of the poor with their situation half a century ago, but only mentions obsolete laws respecting them and their condition in remote times.

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* The reader will perceive that this article, as well as the book to which it relates, was written previously to the recent arrangements for Peace.

In the next chapter, on the History and Progress of Revenues, the vast increase of our revenue in later times is considered as a proof of national ability. A formidable objection, however, Dr. Clarke observes, may be urged, viz. that we may be unable to support this vast revenue, which is stated to be fifty-six millions; and nothing that he advances, to obviate this objection, strikes us as satisfactory. Taxation, probably, will not be greatly decreased on the event of a peace; and we are not sure that our commerce will then equal its present extent. To *taxation*, however, Dr. C. is partial; and he asserts that, when 'well-regulated, it invigorates a nation.' Does he mean to say that taxation must invigorate, if carried to an unlimited amount, provided that it be well arranged?—Ought not our relative situation with foreign countries to be taken into the account? Must not excessive taxation, however well-regulated, tend to embarrass trade by permitting other states to possess advantages in the price of manufactures, and thus diminishing the demand for the produce of our own industry?

Dr. Clarke makes a light estimation of our enormous debt and taxes; assuring his readers that our 'gigantic strengh will disregard the weight of the peace establishment:'—but here the Doctor is not consistent with himself; for, if *taxes invigorate*, how can he enumerate the liquidation of the debt, and the consequent diminution of taxes, among our blessings *in futuro*?—yet to this he points as to a happy prospect for the nation. This must be Arabic to John Bull: who will also as little comprehend the author's distinction, when he says that our commerce has advanced '*during* war, but *not by* war.' The successes of our arms have unquestionably been a source of increased trade. Our victories have for the present thrown the commerce of Europe into our hands; and the security of our insular situation, guaranteed by our all-triumphant navy, has made Great Britain the emporium of the world. Thus has our great trade been assisted *by* the war. As Dr. Clarke, however, will not allow this, neither will he admit that this augmentation of trade will be terminated by a peace. We must refer our readers to the work for his reasons.—His statement of the increase of our commerce, during the present war, demands exhibition:

The Commerce of Great Britain amounted,	
according to the official rates, in 1793, to	£. 39,666,000
Ditto - - in 1799, -	62,828,000
Increase during war - -	£. 23,162,000

While Dr. C. makes a splendid display of the effects of commerce, he sinks the quantity of the public debt. Representing

its real value to be about 271,000,cool., and then deducting this trifling sum from 2,300,000,000, the total value of the national property, (according to Mr. Beeke's statement,) he triumphantly asks, "How are we ruined?"

Farther to satisfy the reader, (who, it is benevolently hinted, 'if he be not convinced, is more intitled to our pity than indignation,') Dr. Clarke proceeds to another view of the subject, viz. a valuation of the industry of the people at so much per head; and finding *two hundred pounds* to be the value of each man, woman, and child, taken collectively, and *four hundred pounds* to be the value of each adult, he deduces it as a corollary, that it is cheaper to buy foreign soldiers than lose our own men.

It is certain that our *internal* have kept pace with our *external* exertions during the war; since, in the four years before the war, (from 1789 to 1792,) Parliament enacted 138 bills of inclosure, and 30 navigation and canal bills; whereas, in the four succeeding years (from 1793 to 1796) of expensive war, there were passed 283 inclosure bills, with 69 navigation and canal bills; and the sums authorized to be borrowed on the latter amount to £.7,415,000. The reader, however, will be surprized to learn that, with this additional number of inclosures, our importation of corn has increased; especially when he is informed, by a table exhibited in this work, that during his present Majesty's reign *two millions eight hundred and four thousand acres* have been inclosed; while in Queen Anne's reign, there were only 1,438, in that of George I. 17,666, and in that of George II. 318,778 acres inclosed.

Taking the number of acres in the United Kingdom at one hundred millions, and supposing that two acres can support one person, Dr. C. concludes that our population might be increased to *fifty* millions;—some waggish remarks might be made on such an estimate: but we shall not venture on this delicate ground.

As our limits obliged us to bestow but slight notice on Dr. Clarke's chapters on the progress and state of the Public Funds, and on Agriculture and Waste Lands, they also require us entirely to pass over those which respect the State and Progress of Population in Great Britain and Europe, and the Progress of our Naval and Military Power; though each of these chapters affords much curious matter, and is illustrated by several interesting tables: especially that which gives a comparative view of the principal states of Europe. (See p. 199.) We must now proceed to consider the Appendix to this work, which relates to *the High Price of Provisions.*

Here Dr. C. advances the opinions that our *unparalleled prosperity* is one cause of this high price; and that our population has augmented far beyond general supposition, while there is a real and considerable deficiency in the growth of corn. We apprehend that he is wrong in both these statements. It does not appear, from the actual returns, that our population is so vastly increased; nor has the price of corn, for many years back, indicated any material scarcity. The bad harvest in 1799, which the author does not mention, will account in a great measure for our late deficiency. We have not yet recovered from the loss which we then sustained; and the extent of our warlike exertions has augmented our difficulties. We trust, however, that another harvest, should it please God to grant us a favourable one, will brighten our prospects; especially if the blessing of peace * be added to the gifts of a plentiful season.

Moo-y.

Art. XVI. *Select Essays of Dio Chrysostom*, translated into English from the Greek, with Notes, critical and illustrative. By Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. 8vo. pp. 256. 6s. Boards. R. Phillips, &c. 1800.

When the reader recollects that Dio Chrysostom was dignified by the friendship of Trajan, and particularly distinguished by that excellent Prince, he will not wonder that the late ingenious and learned Mr. Wakefield † should avail himself of his works to beguile the tedious hours of confinement; nor will he be surprized on finding many valuable observations occur in these pages, with so little alloy of false taste, of puerility, and of inconclusive reasoning:—faults chargeable on the Platonic School in all its several stages, and from which its illustrious founder himself was by no means exempt, though they were counterbalanced by the richness of his fancy and the fascinations of his style.

We shall make some extracts from Mr. W.'s Preface, in which he gives an account of his author:

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* See the note in page 191.

† The fatal effects of a fever have recently deprived the world of this accomplished scholar, when he had not long been released from the imprisonment to which he was sentenced, about two years since, for the publication of a pamphlet which was deemed libellous. Whatever faults might shade his character, particularly in the view of parties, his loss will be long felt and his attainments still longer acknowleged by the literary world.

From

'From the memorials of DION, or DIO CHRYSOSTOM, which have been transmitted to our times by himself, by Photius, Philostratus, or others, and investigated by Fabricius in that immense and inestimable repository of ancient literature, the *Bibliotheca Græca*, lib. iv. cap. 10. we collect, that our author was the son of one Pasicrates, that his grandfather was honoured with the title and privileges of a Roman citizen by the reigning emperour of his day; and that he was born at Prusa in Bithynia.'—

'He was familiarly acquainted with Apollonius of Tyana and Euphrates of Tyre, during the reigns of Nero and Vespasian. When he arrived at manhood, he travelled into Ægypt and other countries for the improvement of his understanding by a survey of their curiosities, and by conversation with their inhabitants. On his return to Rome, his freedom of speech (that unpardonable offence to all TYRANTS, and the true touchstone of POLITICAL VIRTUE in every community) in conjunction with his friendship for a man of honour, whom Domitian had put to death, endangered his life with that despotic monster, and drove him into banishment, about the year *ninety-four* of the Christian æra, with no other companions of his exile besides Plato's dialogue on the Immortality of the Soul, and a single oration of Demosthenes. From the manner in which he mentions the Getæ, Mysians, and Thracians, in several passages of his works, he seems to have penetrated during this pilgrimage to the very extremities of the Roman empire. He was recalled from banishment by Nerva, and was caressed by that emperour, but more particularly by Trajan, who conspicuously displayed his esteem and affection, by admitting our philosopher to accompany him on extraordinary occasions, when he rode in his triumphal chariot through the city. That magnanimous prince, the sovereign of the world, did not think himself disgraced by being seen in the procession of Imperial Rome with a man of letters sitting by his side.

'DIO's character, as a moral præceptor, an eloquent writer, and a graceful speaker, was in high estimation with his contemporaries and his successors in the same rhetorical department. He acquired the additional name of *Cocceianus* from his patron Coccceius, and of *Chrysostom*, or *golden mouthed*, from the elegance and purity of his compositions: a name, which has occasioned a frequent confusion of our *Dio Chrysostom*, the heathen philosopher, with *John Chrysostom*, the Christian preacher, so denominated for the same solid and splendid excellences of his style. In person, our author is reasonably presumed, from various circumstances of praise and censure on these topics in his orations, to have been slender, and of inferiour stature. He was married, brought up children, and lived to a good old age.'

It is then stated that a second volume of these translations would make its appearance, if the present should meet with public encouragement:—but this addition, we suppose, is not now to be expected. Yet it is obvious that curious readers may derive advantages from the perusal of such a production as this, which they will not reap from a modern performance of even superior merit. A work like this brings them back, by its allusions

and illustrations, to those characters and scenes which occupied their youthful studies,—exercises their powers of recollection,—and gives them a deeper insight into antient customs and manners.

The subjects of the essays here selected for translation, from the very voluminous productions of Dio, are as follow: Kingly Government; Arbitrary Government; Diogenes, or concerning Servants; Grief; Immoderate Desires; the Cultivation of Letters; Retirement; Happiness; the Conduct of Men at a Public Dinner; Charidemus; a Libyan Fable; concerning the Dæmon; Diogenes, or concerning Virtue; Slavery and Liberty; War and Peace; and Diogenes, or the Isthmian Discourse.—We shall quote a few passages from two or three of the papers.

The following sketches of a tyrant's situation and feelings, in the Essay on Arbitrary Government, have much merit:

'The very summit of absurdity was that, whilst unarmed men were a terror to him, the Persian monarch trusted his life to the fidelity of a military guard; and all, who came into his presence, were searched for weapons, though he lived surrounded by the weapons of his soldiery: so that he fled from unarmed to armed men, and again from the armed to the unarmed; for he was defended from the populace by his body-guard; and from his body-guard, by eunuchs. Thus, without confidence and without refuge, there was no man, with whom he could pass a single day disengaged from terrour. His meat and drink were a cause of perpetual suspicion, so that previous tasters were employed; as scouts are sent before in a road infested by an enemy. Nay, even on his dearest relatives could he not repose with comfort and security; neither on wife, nor children. Yet, though royalty was accompanied by such vexations and infelicities; he had neither inclination nor power to dismiss the incumbrance from him; whereas all other calamities of men admit some consolation in the prospect of a temporary respite. The prisoner expects his liberty at some future period; to an exile there is always a possibility of return to his native country; the sick entertain hopes of recovery to the last moment of their lives; but for this monarch no means of deliverance can be found. They too, whom Fortune has afflicted by the death of friends, well know, that Time will at length mitigate their sorrow; but his disquietudes crowd upon him with perpetual encrease.'—

'To kings alone no gratitude is paid for the favours, which they confer, because such favours are thought inadequate; and those, who fail in the attainment of their requests, are converted into most bitter enemies: not to mention, that men in proportion to their opulence are objects of envy, however justly that opulence may have been acquired: tyrants of course excite envy above all mankind. Add to this the necessity of gratifying all around him, if he mean to shun instantaneous destruction: but all cannot easily be gratified, without robbing others: these are converted into enemies, while the objects

of his favour are suspected, and eager to abandon him. Thus, what is distant, he fears for that very reason; and what is near, because it is about his person. From the remote, he is expecting war; from those at hand conspiracy. Peace he regards as inexpedient, because it gives leisure to his subjects; and war, because they are necessarily burthened with supplies, and harassed by military hardships. Thus, in war, his affections are set on peace; and, when peace is accomplished, he immediately employs himself in contriving war.

'In a state of public plenty, tyrants dread the insolence of the common people; in a time of scarcity, their resentment. They see no safety for themselves, whether abroad or at home, in public or in the palace; neither can they frequent any place with confidence: all are beset with plot and treachery.'—

'If men converse with him under no restraint, he is angry, and alarmed by this freedom: if they cringe and crouch before him, that servility of homage excites suspicion. Liberal intercourse is regarded as an insult; humility, as a stratagem. From reproach he feels much more uneasiness than others; because a tyrant truly is reviled! and praise communicates no pleasure, as the suspicious offspring of insincerity. Of those most valuable and honourable acquisitions he is wholly destitute, good-will, and friendship. From no man can he hope for kindness: for a keeper will sooner contract an affection for the ferocious lion, than servants and courtiers for a tyrant.'

Some passages in the Essays on the Conduct of Men at a a Public Dinner, and concerning Virtue, exhibit striking pictures of antient manners:

'With respect to large popular assemblies, the purpose of some, who frequent them, is merely a curious survey of the various spectacles and games; and such visitors, as are strongly actuated by this curiosity, employ themselves on these objects from morning to night. Many constitute a mere collection of market-people, who bring their commodities to sale; some make a public exhibition of their ingenuity by exposing works of art and various manufactures; some display their philosophical attainments in lectures; others read publicly their tragedies and epic poems, or their compositions in prose, to the no small annoyance of the man, who came for relaxation and amusement: which description most resembles those hummers and singers at an entertainment; to whom you are compelled to listen even in your own despite. Now, among those literary exhibiters, that man, who is able to produce an useful and edifying treatise, and lead the assembly to a proficiency in virtue and decorum, enjoys an exemption from the general turbulence of the crowd, and collects their attention to himself.'—

'There happened to be collected at this time, around the temple of Neptune, a set of rascally sophists, clamouring, and reviling one another, with such as called themselves their disciples, in sharp contention with their associates; and a variety of authors reading publicly their senseless compositions: many poets also singing out their poetry, in the midst of applauding auditors; with a large company of conjurers, exhibiting their tricks; abundance too of fortune-tellers, delivering their marvellous interpretations: thousands of de-

claimers, with their puzzling law-questions and decisions; and not a few mercenary tradesmen, in the exercise of their imposition on all within their power.'

To the first of these passages, the translator adds the following note:

'The meetings here meant were collections of people from all parts of Greece and the Grecian colonies, resembling some of our *Fairs*, half a century or a century ago, in England; such as *Stirbitch* fair near Cambridge; of which, the celebrity, the œconomy, and the humours, are curiously and successfully described in a long poem of the *Musæ Anglicanæ*.'

A happy specimen of the Platonic manner occurs in the latter of these two essays:

'Besides the contention, however, with LABOURS, another conflict is appointed for us, not merely more formidable than those, which I have stated, but, in reality, arduous and perilous to a degree incomparably greater, the conflict with PLEASURE; who does not oppose with open violence, but ensnares by subtleties, and beguiles with a cup of most bewitching poisons. Her battle bears no resemblance to the battle thus described in Homer's poetry:

> 'Then at the ships a combat sharp arose
> With renovated fury: faulchions long,
> Deep-gashing hatchets, dealt destruction round.'

Her battle, I say, corresponds not to this description. Direct assault is not the method, to which Pleasure has recourse; but delusive artifice, and the fascination of dire enchantments, are her weapons; enchantments, like those, by which the sorcerous Circe, as Homer relates the story, was able to bewitch the companions of Ulysses; transforming some of them into swine, some into wolves, and others into every variety of savage beasts.

'Such is the character of Pleasure! Her insidious attempts are not confined to a single process: she endeavours, by machinations infinitely multifarious, to accomplish the destruction of mankind, whether waking or asleep, through the instrumentality of all their senses, their sight, their hearing, their smell, their taste, their touch; by their meat also, their drink, and their lustful appetites. No security can be found in sleep from stationing a row of watchful sentinels, as against an ordinary enemy, because her principal attack is conducted during that season of repose; partly by engaging sleep himself to enfeeble and enslave them, partly by sending forth against them deceitful and plotting dreams, to recall her to their recollection. Labour, for the most part, makes his approaches through the medium of the Touch; but Pleasure commissions the collective senses of our constitution to execute her purposes. With Labour it is our interest to grapple in a close encounter; but Pleasure we must flee with all possible precipitation, and should maintain no more communication with her, than what unopposeable Necessity may exact. In a contest with Labour, the most resolute combatant proves the most successful; but the truest resolution is displayed by a hasty and distant

retreat

retreat from Pleasure: because an escape from entire perdition is not possible to him, who comes into contact with this fatal adversary, or hazardously attempts a frequent communication with her. When she once prevails, and has established an influence over the soul by her magic potions, then succeeds the metamorphosis of Circe, who strikes the victims with her wand, and afterwards finds no difficulty in compelling them to the close confinement of a sty: from which period they unchangeably continue to the latest period under the semblance of a swine, or wolf.'

We must, however, refrain from additional extracts, and refer our readers to the work itself for that farther gratification which, we doubt not, they will desire.—The notes of the editor form ingenious and pleasing illustrations of the text. Several quotations from the poets of antiquity are there introduced and translated by Mr. Wakefield; who appears, from these specimens, to have been well qualified for giving faithful and spirited versions of this nature.

Jo.

ART. XVII. *Political Recollections relative to Egypt;* containing Observations on its Government under the Mamaluks;—its Geographical Position;—its intrinsic and extrinsic Resources;—its relative Importance to England and France; and its dangers to England in the Possession of France: with a Narrative of the ever-memorable British Campaign in the Spring of 1801. By George Baldwin, Esq. late his Majesty's Consul-general in Egypt; and attached to the Commander in Chief during the above glorious Campaign. 8vo. pp. 227. 6s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

"THE land of Egypt" has been celebrated from the remotest antiquity; and its advantageous situation for commerce was well known to the Greeks and Romans. The improvement of geography, however, enables us to appreciate the value of its position more accurately than the traders of former times, who practised only a timorous navigation, and were but partially acquainted with the coasts of the old continents. If a geograper were desired to point out, on the map of the world, the spot most adapted for the emporium of universal commerce, he would put his finger on Egypt. It is of importance to all the nations bordering on the Mediterranean Sea, that the commodities of the East should pass to them through that country; of which the French have long been convinced, and have therefore sighed for its possession. Mercier, in his Romance written several years prior to the Revolution, describes France, in the state of renovation and glory in which he saw it in his dream, as the possessor of Egypt; and it is probable that Bona-

parte's eastern expedition was founded on an old plan, projected long before the monarchy was disturbed. Be this, however, as it may; England could not observe this bold attempt with unconcern, since Egypt was seized by the Gallic republicans not merely as a position favourable to the commerce of France and to the other Mediterranean states, but as a spot from which our extensive possessions in the east might be advantageously annoyed. Of all our expeditions, therefore, fitted out during the war, that which was destined for Egypt was most rational in its object, and has been the most glorious and successful in its termination.

From all these considerations, the volume before us will excite a lively interest. It is not the work of a mere author, but of a man of sagacity and experience. It does not recommend itself by correctness of language, but, as we are inclined to think, by correctness of detail. The writer is well acquainted with the ground on which he takes his present historical station; since, for one and thirty years, he has maintained an intercourse with the greatest part of the Turkish dominions. During his residence in Africa, his dispatches have afforded the opportunity of expelling the French twice from India; and he has repeatedly, before the French incursion, recommended it to our Government to consider the value of Egypt as communicating with our Empire in the East. His knowlege of that country was esteemed so important, that he was sought in his retirement in Italy, and attached to the Commander in Chief of our expedition; and having been a spectator of the three memorable actions of the 8th, 13th, and 21st of March, his narrative must highly gratify the public curiosity.

The contents of this volume are not uniformly arranged; and indeed it is evidently composed for the occasion from various materials.—The preface gives some account of the author, by which his qualifications to discuss the proposed subject are unquestionably evinced. He informs the reader that, in Feb. 1760, he was landed on the Island of Cyprus;—that in 1763 he went over to St. Jean d'Acre;—that he thence had an intercourse with the Egyptians tilll 1767;—that he contemplated the ~~scene~~ prospect before him with that spirit of investigation which determined him to abandon all other pursuits, and to follow up the scene of adventure which opened to his view:—that, with his mind full of his scheme of exploring the connection that there might be, of whatever nature, between India and Egypt by the Red Sea, he came to England in 1768, where he applied for and obtained leave to go as a free mariner to the East Indies;—that he then returned to Cyprus, and in 1773 passed over thence into Egypt;—that he

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was at Grand Cairo in the time of Mahomet Bey, who gave him every encouragement to persevere in his plan;—that he was prompted to go to Constantinople, in order to make it known there:—that in 1774, he returned to Egypt and went to Suez, but that, discouraged by some untoward circumstances, he came back to Cairo and thence to England;—that, having scarcely reached London, when he heard of an adventurer arriving at Suez from Bengal, he resolved to return, and was at Alexandria in July 1775; where he succeeded in establishing a direct commerce from England to Egypt, the navigation from India quite up to Suez having been explored. 'In 1776, 1777, and 1778, (says Mr. B.,) ships were arriving at Alexandria from England, and at Suez from India, at the same time. We composed our bowl of the Ganges, the Thames, and the Nile, and from the top of the pyramid drank prosperity to England.'

Mr. B. then acquaints us that, by this channel, he was the first who conveyed advices to India of the war in 1778, so that the French were expelled from India before succours could reach them: but that, the Turks being jealous of his scheme, and we ourselves not aware of its importance, he was forced to abandon it and returned to England;—that, it being afterward known that the French were estimating the worth of Egypt to France, and in 1785 had concluded a treaty with the Beys, Government sent for him, and he was desired to prepare a memorial on the subject, which is here printed;—that, in consequence, he was appointed Consul-General in Egypt, and entered on the functions of his office at Alexandria in Dec. 1786;—that, after four years' service, the office was abolished as unnecessary;—that this shock was so great to him, as to bereave him of strength and of every faculty;—that, being advised to embark for another climate, he left all his property, and sailed in 1798 for Patmos, and the Grotto of the Revelations;—that hence he went to Trieste and Vienna, and then sought a retirement in Italy;—that, being disturbed in his solitude by the battle of Marengo, he went to Leghorn, where he was surprised by the Republicans, but, taking refuge on board one of his Majesty's frigates, he was conveyed to Naples;—that here a letter reached him from Sir Ralph Abercrombie, requesting that, as his knowlege of the country to be invaded was essential to the public service, he would join the army at Malta;—that with this request he cheerfully complied, entered Egypt with the British forces, and left it only to bring to England the news of victory, and the standard of Bonaparte's *invincible* legion.

After having thus given a history of himself, Mr. B. offers speculations on the situation and resources of Egypt, made as opportunities favoured from 1773 to 1781, and thrown together in 1785. These suggestions respect its situation relative to other parts of the Globe;—its commerce, productions, and commercial resources;—its government;—its means of conquest;—its present state, and its capability of defence;—its importance to England in subservience to her connection with India;—its importance to France, and the facility with which it may be conquered. To these considerations is added a letter to Mr. Dundas, dated Dec. 9, 1800, in which is urged the necessity of our first assisting the Allies in Italy, before the army went to Egypt. Mr. B. allows, however, the vast importance of this ultimate object of the expedition. 'France, (says he,) in possession of Egypt, would possess the master-key to all the trading nations of the earth. Enlightened, as the times are, in the general arts of navigation and commerce, she might make it the emporium of the world: she might make it the awe of the eastern world, by the facility she would command of transporting her forces thither, by surprise, in any number and at any time, and England would hold her possessions in India at the mercy of France.'—It is happy for us that the French are expelled: but Mr. Baldwin is of opinion that the country should not revert to the Turks, and he would have us retain the possession of it.

The next section is occupied by considerations for the army on the Egyptian expedition, respecting the climate, the disembarkation of the troops, and the plague. On this last subject, we have a distinct essay, in which Mr. B. endeavours philosophically to explain what the plague is, and to prescribe a mode of cure. His remedy may be good, though some readers may treat his philosophy with no great respect. He decides that the disease called the plague is an acid, and that it may be cured by anointing the body with oil; since, as an acid, it has a predilection for oil, and will leave the human body to fly to it. His recipe, therefore, is, as soon as the plague appears, to rub the whole body with pure olive oil; and he says that he has repeatedly seen the good effects of this application.

The last and most interesting paper is the narrative of the British Campaign in Egypt; and this brief history must be perused by every Briton with pride and exultation. The intrepidity of our troops in landing, and in repulsing the enemy, is well described; and they seem indeed to have atchieved wonders.—Respecting the memorable action of the 21st, a

circumstance is mentioned which contributed to our victory, though it was not designed for this purpose:—The soldiers had made a number of holes, about three feet deep, for shelter when sleeping: over the ground thus excavated, the charge of the French cavalry was made; and owing to this circumstance they were completely routed.

'The scope and jet of this attack on the morning of the 21st of March, (observes Mr. B.) was to cut off all our reserve, encamped from the centre to the right.

'They had offered a Louis-d'or per man to any thousand who would undertake to turn our right, and take the battery which defended it. Bonaparte's Invincible Legion, consisting of nine hundred men, volunteered for the service.

'At the same time that these should turn our right, the main body of the French army was to break our line in the centre, turn to the left, and envelop our reserve. At the moment this was executed, the French Cavalry, fifteen hundred in number, were to charge the body so enveloped, and cut them to pieces.

'The nine hundred of Bonaparte's invincible legion succeeded in turning our right between the walls of a large ruin and our battery. They stormed the battery three times—and were three times exterminated to a man!

'Our reserve, the forty-second and twenty-eighth, finding the enemy in their rear, faced about and charged them with the bayonet, and drove them backwards step by step into the inclosure of the ruin. Six hundred and fifty of these invincibles were already extended on the ground; the remaining two hundred and fifty called for quarter, and obtained it. Not a man of them returned!—this was a business of twenty minutes.'

Mr. B. does not mention our loss in men, but he records with concern the death of the gallant commander in chief; and he relates a reflection of Sir Ralph's mind, which was worthy of a truly great General. 'These victories make me melancholy,' said poor Sir Ralph, when he was complimented on his victory gained on the 13th. 'To see so many brave men go to death for their country; so much the more to be admired; so much the more to be regretted; it does indeed make me melancholy; but how are battles to be won?'

The volume concludes with stating, in a letter to Mr. Dundas, the advantages of Egypt as a colony; and with urging the vast importance of retaining it in our possession:

'To enter into a detail of this commerce (the author observes) would surpass the bounds of a letter, but it may be to your satisfaction to know that in rice, and grain and coffee, and senna and flax, and hemp and sal ammoniac, and myrrh and aloes, and gum of all kinds, and ivory and safflower, and hides and indigo, and sugar and

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an infinite variety of articles useful to our consumption and manufactures, a thousand cargoes may easily be composed and annually imported from Egypt to England. Do I say a thousand ships? Yes! A thousand, and I have left out of my account the lake Natron, producing a salt, answering all the purposes of soda in bleaching and in making of soap, equal to a thousand cargoes more, if required.' —'If it can be held to England, she may talk of jewels in her crown, but a brighter than this she will not possess.'

Though the preliminary articles of Peace (on the return of which, we most cordially congratulate our countrymen, and the whole civilized world,) have diminished our interest in these reflections, yet Mr. B.'s account must no doubt have so far impressed our government with the importance of Egypt as a station, that henceforth a watchful eye will be kept on it; and a British Consul will probably be always maintained there. If so, who is so fit for this office as Mr. Baldwin himself?

The author's style is not always English. He coins a variety of words, as *to irrupt*, *to insurge*, and *humect*. He uses *extinguish* as a verb neuter, and the substantive *repair* to express a place of retreat. These, however, are venial faults, to be excused in a man who has been long absent, on public important duty, from his own country.

Moy.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For OCTOBER, 1801.

HISTORY.

Art. 18. *The History of ancient and modern Egypt:* comprehending a View of the natural Phenomena: the Efforts of Genius and Art; and the Moral, Religious, Commercial, and Political Transactions, from the earliest Dawn of Intelligence, to the latest Period of authentic Information. Comprizing likewise, a Comparison betwixt the ancient and present State of Eygpt, and a Philosophical View of the remarkable Productions connected with the History of that Country. From the most authentic Records. By J. Franklin, Esq. Vol. I. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. West and Hughes. 1800.

We have not been very prompt in announcing this work; and had its author taken from us the opportunity of noticing it in its present unfinished state, by delaying the publication of it till it had been completed, he might have enabled us to discharge our duty more to his and our own satisfaction. The eagerness which Mr. Franklin and his friends have here shewn, to push the present volume into the world, is peculiarly inconsiderate and unfortunate. While Egypt is occupied by the troops of England and of France, and while it is natural to expect some important new information and discoveries,

coveries, the writer of its history ought not to be precipitate. We are aware that it may be said that the errors or omissions of the first volume may be corrected or supplied in the second: but it is better to avoid the necessity of such emendations, and not to risk publication at a time when the author's view of his subject must be incomplete. Mr. F. should have contented himself, for the present, with procuring *materials* for the history of Egypt; and we lament his precipitancy in having done more. Marks of haste are evident even in the title. In p. 9. the town at the commencement of Upper Egypt is properly spelt *Syene*, but in p. 14. it is called *Sienna*, which is the name of a town in the *ci-devant* Tuscany.

Even respecting the name of Egypt, Mr. F.'s statement is incorrect. He says that the Hebrews called it *Shihor*. The word, however, in the Hebrew Bible, which we render Egypt, is *Mizraim*. *Shihor*, or *Sihor*, i. e. *fluvius turbidus*, is not a name of Egypt, but of the Nile.—In p. 19. we have *authenticity* for *accuracy*; and in p. 52. after a high compliment to Mr. Bruce *, we are informed that his account, 'though it may be *disputed*, cannot be *controverted*.'

Mr. F. considers Egypt (he probably would have been more correct had he said Chaldea) as the spot on which mankind first lighted the torch of science; and he offers it as his opinion that this celebrated country might be restored to its former greatness and fertility, if it were in hands of any other people besides the lazy Turks.

A kind of prospectus of this undertaking is given as follows:

'That our readers' attention may not be bewildered in contemplating the infinite variety of subjects of wonder and delight, which the history of this renowned country presents, we will consider it in the following order, viz.

'*First*, The natural phenomena, or curiosities of Egypt; and the efforts of genius and prodigies of art of this wonderful people.

'*Secondly*, The history of political transactions under the different kings, from the earliest dawn of intelligence to the period of the fall of the Roman Empire.

'*Thirdly*, Historical and commercial view of the countries adjacent, and connected with Egypt.

'*Fourthly*, An account of the polity, topography, manners and customs, commerce, &c. since the time of the caliphs, to the present period.

'*Fifthly*, The history of political transactions, from the revolution in Egypt brought about by the caliphs, to the late occurrences in that country.

'In illustrating these great divisions, the natural as well as political history of this country will come under discussion; with a comparison betwixt the ancient and present state of Egypt,—which, considering the revolution recently taken place, claims a high degree of attention and regard.'

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* As Mr. Bruce is deemed such indisputable authority, we are surprized that Mr. F. has not given that traveller's handsome map, instead of the miserable one which stands at the head of this volume.

A general

A general preface is intended for the concluding volume; in which the author promises gratefully to acknowlege the liberal assistance which he has received.

Moo-y.

AGRICULTURE, *&c.*

Art. 19. *The Corn Trade investigated, and the System of Fluctuations exposed:* with a Proposition most humbly offered for the Consideration of the Legislature, which will effectually remedy the alarming fluctuating Prices of Bread Corn. And an Investigation of the Import and Export Laws: with some Remarks on the landed Interest and Agriculture of this Kingdom; clearly justifying the Farmers, vindicating the Dealers and Merchants, and affixing the Stigma on the proper Objects. By Buxton Lawn. A New Edition, with large Additions. 8vo. pp. 112. 3s. West and Hughes. 1801.

Mr. Lawn speaks of himself as 'lowly situate and out of the sunshine of favour;' being now only a baker, at Bath, with adversity for his lot, though he once hailed prosperity as his own. He was, he tells us, the son of a respectable Norfolk farmer; was celebrated in the field as a practical agriculturist, where he was victor at nine ploughing matches; was transplanted from the fields which his ancestors had tilled, into an office under government; and was for 20 years in the correspondence department of the excise office, London. The cause of this change of situation he does not explain: but, as a baker, he congratulates himself on the flattering attentions which the first edition of this pamphlet procured for him; and he now, with some confidence, presents this enlarged impression to the attention of the public.

It is here contended that the farmers, millers, and bakers, are not deserving of the odium which has been cast on them; and that to the corn and flour factors, and to the system of factorage, we owe the evils of high and fluctuating prices. Hence the author proposes to suppress or contract the improper practices of *factors;* who, he is firmly of opinion, *should not be allowed to be dealers in corn*, any more than the distiller is permitted to be a rectifier, the tanner to unite the calling of a currier with his own, or the importer of foreign wines to trade in sweets. He recommends public granaries and mills, and states his reasons for preferring large to small farms.'

In the second part, he undertakes '*shortly* and *briefly*,' (this is like the alderman's toast "a *speedy* peace and *soon*,") to give the history and mystery of factorage; and if his statements be accurate, factors may well afford their splendid equipages, superb town residences, and elegant country villas: but we apprehend that their profits must here be greatly exaggerated. Mr. Lawn is, however, just in stating that 'the object of the factor is a fluctuating market;' and he has truly prophesied that, 'in the falling, there will in future be observed a slow and progressive motion, because a latitude must be given for the bakers to work off, not their own stocks in hand, but those of the factors.'—The existence of an iniquitous system in the corn-market is very seriously lamented: but, at the same time, Mr. L. tells us that he will forfeit his life, if the adoption of his plan did not effectually

tually remedy this evil.—His ideas, we think, merit the attention of the legislature. **Mooy.**

Art. 20. *The Case of the Farmers;* with an Appendix, and a Dedication to the Board of Agriculture; and an Address to all present and future Writers on Agriculture. By a Hertfordshire Farmer. 8vo. 1s. Badcock, &c. 1801.

The *oppressed* Farmer (*risum teneatis!*) is here recommended to our compassion; and after the most profitable period ever experienced by the cultivators of land, we are informed by this writer that agriculture is forced into an unnatural degree of depression.—We sincerely pity the *poor* farmer! His case is miserable in the extreme! He cannot get rich, and is forced to enjoy the pleasures of life by stealth! Landlords should therefore consider the *hard* conditions by which these men hold farms, and the public should be willing to give *higher* prices for grain. This would satisfy the *clouted-shoon* Hertfordshire farmer; who, while he represents his condition as depressed, and the case of his brethren as deplorable, evinces in his style the marks of learned leisure, and resembles the character which his signature denotes, about as much as Achilles resembled Thersites. **Do**

Art. 21. *Auxiliary Remarks on an Essay on the "Comparative Advantages of Oxen for Tillage in Competition with Horses."* In a Letter to Sir John Talbot Dillon, Knt. M. R. I. A. &c. &c. to which *is* added sundry Communications on this interesting Subject. By William Tatham, Author of the Political Oeconomy of Inland Navigation, Historical Essay on Tobacco, &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Scott. 1801.

Contributions on the subject of agriculture and rural affairs flow in from every source; the practices of every district, and of all countries, are minutely detailed; and if our rural exertions keep pace with our closet labours, the Empire must experience a marvellous improvement. Mr. Tatham's 'auxiliary' mite has not much enriched the treasury of agricultural knowlege: but he has communicated several curious particulars, which may render his pamphlet amusing. To excite a partiality for the ox instead of the horse, he recounts instances of 'bovian speed;' and he gravely records that a person in America had '*an ox*, whom he would match with the swiftest running horses, with only this difference, that the ox should start with his head pointing the way he was to run, while the horse was to stand in the contrary direction.' Mr. T. also speaks of oxen being ridden with the saddle; and he tells us, in order to prevent the experiment of working a bull with an ox, that it is certain, 'if a bull and an ox are worked together, that the breath of the bull becomes fatal to the ox, and will waste him till he dies.' How great soever the prejudice may be in favour of horses for the purposes of husbandry, he observes that, in one respect, oxen are certainly 'preferable in a hilly country: they will in any event hold on what they have gained in an ascent, and will never give back like horses; and as to economy of food, they will live on straw and the refusal of horses.'

On this subject, much may be said on both sides.—In a subjoined extract from a letter by Granville Sharpe, Esq. on land carriage, roads,

roads, and the profitable labour of oxen, a quotation is made from Virgil's Georgics, which is remarkably incorrect; and its egregious faults are not noticed in the table of errata at the end.

The letter, however, contains some benevolent hints respecting the ill treatment of draught oxen by their stupid and unmerciful drivers, which we shall quote, in hopes of contributing to excite attention to these points from the compassionate husbandman:

'Oxen walk full as quick as horses, and more especially when harnassed single in little carts, they really walk as fast as drivers can conveniently keep pace with them, and they are as perfectly tractable and obedient as any horses can possibly be; though these poor oxen have really had much provocation to spoil and *misteach* them by the unfeeling carelessness of their drivers. Sometimes we have seen their cruppers drawn so tight under their tails that the poor animals have been cruelly galled, and when they have winced, or shewn a proper sense of the pain, they have received a violent kick *under* the belly by the cruel drivers, who are not allowed *goads* because of their manifest want of discretion in the use of them. Sometimes we have seen one of the largest oxen put into one of the smallest carts, the shafts of which have been far too short for the ox's body, whereby the sloping front of the cart has cruelly rubbed and jolted upon the poor animal's rump; and sometimes the collars are put on so tight as almost to strangle them.'

For our account of the work to which this pamphlet is a kind of supplement, see M. R. vol. xxi. p. 231. N. S.

Moo-y.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 22. *A Treatise on Opthalmy* [*Ophthalmia*]; and those Diseases which are induced by Inflammations of the Eyes. With new Methods of Cure. By Edward More Noble, Surgeon. Part the First. 8vo. 3s. Robinsons. 1800.

Mr. Noble seems to be persuaded that a new treatise on ophthalmia (not, as he has every where spelt it, *opthalmy*) is wanted, on account of the 'light which has been let in upon us, by the doctrines of that great genius, Dr. John Brown.' We have not observed, however, that the Brunonian doctrines are calculated to excite attention to the history of particular diseases; it is rather probable that they have an opposite tendency. In the present instance, the new pathology has apparently produced no other effect, than that of swelling the pamphlet with an unnecessary dissertation on the laws of animal life;—which would have been just as well placed if the author had written on the culture of potatoes; and which might serve, as it has been said of Sallust's prefaces, to introduce any other subject with equal propriety.—Mr. N. however, has not discarded all the old doctrines; for, in p. 60, we find that he believes in the exploded notion of antagonist-muscles. In this case, we imagine, he is among "the last to lay the old aside."

This author combats the opinion that, in cases of gonorrhœa, inflammation of the eyes may be produced by metastasis from the urethra. His arguments may apply to most cases of the disease: but we conceive that the venereal irritation does certainly, in some habits,

habits, bring on ophthalmia, where no previous disposition to the inflammation had existed. It does not follow that the ophthalmia thus excited shall produce infectious matter; and from the neglect of this distinction, Mr. Noble's doubts seem to have originated.

In the practical part of this dissertation, however, Mr. Noble has shewn himself well acquainted with the best modern methods of treatment; and for diffusing a knowlege of these, his pamphlet may be safely recommended.—The *new Methods of Cure*, promised in the title-page, are reserved, we suppose, for his second part; which we have not seen.

Fer.

Art. 23. *Medical Jurisprudence.* On Madness. By John Johnstone, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1800.

This pamphlet discusses a question highly interesting in every point of view. It is often extremely difficult, yet essentially necessary, to ascertain the actual presence and absence of insanity, in criminal trials; and there are few directions on the subject, either for lawyers or physicians. To set out the boundaries and land-marks of this field would be a performance worthy of the highest abilities, and would intitle the discoverer to eminent distinction: but, though we find much good sense, and many proofs of reading, in the pamphlet before us, we have to lament the deficiency of precise information on most of the perplexing points. In this case, we do not want declamation, however ingenious, but aphorisms and rules.

Dr. Johnstone, we observe, denies the existence of lucid intervals in madness. We think that he is in an error on this point. There is certainly a species of insanity which for a long period, sometimes for many years, is aggravated in a patient at certain intervals, especially at certain seasons of the year; and during the intermissions, reason resumes her sway in a very great degree, if not completely. This kind of mania is perhaps not so common as legal authorities have supposed; but that it sometimes occurs cannot be denied.

There is another case of insanity, for which Dr. J. has not allowed; yet much difficulty arises from it. We allude to that state of the disease in which the patient is aware of the particular hallucination which besets him, and conceals it for a while with great art, though he is unable to conquer its influence on his mind. Other perplexities might be pointed out, for this is a subject nearly uncultivated. We are glad, therefore, that so able a pioneer as Dr. Johnstone has broken the ground, and we hope that other labourers will follow him in a research which is so important to the interests of society.

Do

Art. 24. *Memorials on the Medical Department of Naval Service.* Transmitted to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. To which is annexed, an Address to Parliament, on the Expedience of amending the Laws relative to the Exportation of Corn. By William Renwick, Surgeon in the Noyal Navy. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Rees.

Mr. Renwick has laudably employed himself in soliciting the attention of Government to the situation of a very important class of men; those who are intrusted with the care of the health of our gallant

seamen. Encouragement ought certainly to be given, to procure for them the assistance of high professional talents.

The letter on the corn-laws is very short:—it recommends the prevention of the exportation of corn, when scarcity is apprehended. **Fer.**

Art. 25. *Comparative View of the Theories and Practice of Drs. Cullen, Brown, and Darwin,* in the Treatment of Fever, and of Acute Rheumatism. By Henrique Xavier Baeta, M. D. 8vo. pp. 55. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1800.

Dr. Baeta is an enthusiastic admirer of the doctrines of the Zoonomia, and a despiser of Dr. Cullen; and he has put his readers to the charge of eighteen pence, in order to furnish them with this information. As we have long ago delivered our opinion of those celebrated writers, we shall not resume the discussion of their merits in this place.—Dr. Baeta has illustrated his comparisons by cases taken from the books of the Edinburgh infirmary, which exhibit the practice of some of the professors in fever and acute rheumatism. These extracts will be read with more satisfaction than the author's comments on them. **Do**

Art. 26. *Observations on the Nature, Causes, Prevention, and Cure of Gout and Rheumatism:* to which are annexed, *Phænomena Physiologiæ,* issuing in the Cure of these Diseases. By William Peter Whyte. 12mo. pp. 122. 2s. 6d. Boards. Printed at Stourbridge, and sold in London by Rivingtons. 1800.

Mr. Whyte supposes that the existence of morbid matter in the system occasions the symptoms of gout: but to 'go more minutely into the nature and properties of it, would be inconsistent with his design, and unimportant to the generality of readers.' What might be the design of the author, in this treatise, we cannot undertake to determine: but we are sure that *all* his readers would have felt themselves infinitely obliged to him, if he had given them an adequate explanation of the proximate cause of gout. One piece of information, however, is here imparted, though we fear that few persons are sufficiently learned to profit by it: Mr. W. says;

'Health, depending upon the maintenance of the natural balance of power between the two principal agents in the body, Chemistry and Mechanism; if indiscretion give the predominance to either, whether our supineness anticipate it or not, the natural result, disease, will follow.'

The dissertation on the origin of gout is followed by a curious piece of reasoning, intended to prove that the peculiar causes of gout must produce that disorder, and no other. 'Any disease, therefore,' the author says, (p. 49) 'must be what it is.' This, as Sir Archy MacSarcasm observes, is *an excellent remark, and very new.*

On the subject of the cure of this disease, the author very judiciously directs patients to take—advice. On the proximate cause of rheumatism, the treatise becomes very poetical and obscure. Mr. W. seems to think that this complaint depends on the accumulation of heat in the body, in consequence of the application of cold.

Common sense, and dissections, inform us, on the contrary, that acute rheumatism consists in inflammation of the muscular fibre.

For the cure of rheumatism, like that of gout, Mr. Whyte recommends the attendance of a physician or surgeon!

The cases subjoined to this curious production are conceived in a similar strain. They only inform us that persons afflicted with gout or rheumatism have been cured by a few doses of—the author's medicines, which are not specified.

On the whole, the only specific information contained in this *Advertisement* is to be found in the last page: 'Patients attended at the author's residence, or families at their own houses.' **Fer.**

Art. 27. *A Cursory View of the Treatment of Ulcers*, more especially those of the scrofulous, Phagedænic, and Cancerous Description. With an Appendix, on Baynton's new Mode of treating old Ulcers of the Leg. By Richard Nayler, Surgeon to the Gloucester Infirmary. 8vo. pp. 180. 3s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley. 1800.

This treatise is judiciously composed; and the author seems to have attended diligently to the morbid appearances, and to have given a careful trial to the different methods of cure proposed in cases of ulcer. He does not profess to aim at novelty, but he has produced a work which, on account of its brevity, will be very acceptable to the younger part of the profession.

Mr. Nayler does not seem to have tried the method of Mr. Baynton in a sufficient number of cases, to speak decisively of its effects. The power of the adhesive bandage is now established by the concurrent testimonies of so many practitioners, that we apprehend that it is placed *extra omnem judicii aleam*. It is undoubtedly one of the most important discoveries of modern surgery; and if Mr. Nayler should again appear before the public, we hope to learn that he has largely experienced its benefits. **Do**

Art. 28. *Reasons addressed to both Houses of Parliament*, why a certain Class of the People, in a State of Disease, should be permitted to have the Benefit of Port Wine, as a Medicine, free of all Duty. By a Gentleman of the Faculty. 8vo. 1s. Becket. 1800.

The reasons offered in this letter are sufficiently cogent to obtain an assent to the writer's proposal in a court of medical judicature: but a court of commissioners of the revenue may see things in a different light. Perhaps the best thing that could now be done, for the lower classes of society, would be to encourage the brewing of good malt liquor. Less of low fever prevailed, before spirituous liquors became their common beverage, when a glass of good ale was to be found in every public-house. **Do**

POLITICS, *&c.*

Art. 29. *An Investigation of Mr. Morgan's Comparative View of the Public Finances*, from the Beginning to the Close of the late Administration. By Daniel Wakefield, Esq. 8vo. pp. 67. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1801.

Figures, as well as fire-arms, have lately been brought into the most fierce opposition to each other; and between the approvers and

condemners of Mr. Pitt's administration, a singular hostility exists even in their financial statements. We wish not to become parties in these arithmetical battles; and, as we satisfied ourselves with merely abstracting the prominent features of Mr. Morgan's View *, we shall pursue the same line in noticing the present investigation of that pamphlet.

Mr. D. Wakefield is a very strenuous advocate for the late ministry. He undertakes to correct Mr. M.'s details; and to shew that his conclusions are not such as the real state of the country and the conduct of that administration warrant. A consoling picture is exhibited of our growing prosperity; and we are assured that, if the nation's burdens are increased, its shoulders have been strengthened in more than an adequate proportion. Without employing any ungentlemanly or disrespectful expressions, Mr. W. accuses Mr. M. of great inaccuracy, and of making assertions in general terms which are not warranted by facts. While Mr. M. makes the amount of the funded national debt, in April 1801, to be 558,418,628l. Mr. W. states it at only 400,944,748l. While the former asserts that the peace establishment will require the enormous annual sum of 31 millions, the latter estimates it at little more than 22 millions.

Mr. W. thus draws a comparison of the state of the public finances, at the commencement and at the close of the late administration:

	Annual Interest and Management of the Funded National Debt.	Income of the Sinking Fund.
April 1801.	£. 15,177,834	£. 5,026,664
1786.	9,289,203	1,000,000

In all the comparisons instituted by this panegyrist of Mr. Pitt's measures, the present triumphs over every former period. Thus the account stands of the charge of interest and annuities incurred, and of the produce of taxes to meet it, during the present and the two preceding wars:

Seven Years' War.	American War.	Present War.
£. 2,507,000	£. 5,012,000	£. 5,644,000.

'The products of taxes imposed for *one* year, in the present and two preceding wars, were

1,914,000	3,244,000	8,045,000.

'Consequently, there was a deficiency during the seven years' war of 593,000l.; during the American war of 1,786,000l. while there is a surplus above the charge of this war of 2,401,000l., applicable to the reduction of the national debt. Surely such a state of the public revenue is a theme of boast to the late minister.—Surely such a statement of the public revenue should enliven the hopes and cheer the spirits of the nation, instead of generating despondency and exciting alarm.'

The pamphlet concludes with proofs of our increasing commerce, and with an enumeration of the principal measures carried into execution by Mr. Pitt while he was in power. Mr. W. however, does not undertake to decide whether his favourite minister has benefited or injured the constitution.—As he saw little prospect of peace, he ex-

* See M. Rev. vol. xxxv. N. S. p. 443.

horts his countrymen 'not to grow weary of the race till the course be run.' Thank God! the course of war *is* run; and we shall soon see what will be the exact sum annually necessary for the peace establishment. Mooy.

Art. 30. *The Sound and Baltic, considered in a Political, Military, and Commercial View:* intended to illustrate the relative Connections, and Maritime Strength, of the Northern Powers. To which are added, Observations upon Egypt, and the Trade of India, as connected with the Baltic, or East Sea. Translated from a German Pamphlet, published at Berlin in April last. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1801.

The original work, of which a translation is here given, was written in defence of the principles of the Northern Confederacy; and it is intimated that it was published under the sanction of the Prussian Government. In some respects, it may be curious; but such has been the rapid succession of events since its first appearance, that it is now become in a manner obsolete. It developes the object of the French respecting Egypt, and discovers the envy which our Eastern possessions and commerce excite on the Continent. The author is surprized to see a *little* island, (England,) which he describes as 'feeble in itself and but thinly inhabited,' ruling the two great branches of trade, and dealing out at pleasure to the rest of Europe the productions of both the Indies. The destruction of this commerce is asserted to be necessary to the tranquillity of Europe: but we are informed that, before this can be effected, it is requisite that some strong maritime power should take possession of a middle point, (Egypt being of all others the fittest for the purpose,) between Europe and India.

Speculations are also formed, relative to the importance which the states bordering on the Mediterranean Sea would acquire, by means of a communication opened through Egypt to India; and on the evils which England must suffer by having the Baltic shut against her. Recent events, however, have rendered the discussion of these theories unnecessary; and we sincerely hope that the happy return of PEACE will lead nations to consider not how they may injure, but how they may benefit each other. Do

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 31. *Sermons on various Subjects.* By Edward Pye Waters, A.B. Curate of Great Barr, Staffordshire. 8vo. pp. 263. 7s. Boards. White. 1800.

After a perusal of these fifteen sermons, we think that it may be fairly pronounced, as a general character, that they exhibit considerable ingenuity, good sense, and ability; and that they are composed in an agreeable and impressive style. Two of them are Assize sermons, preached at Stafford in the year 1799. These relate chiefly to legislation and government: but they offer much pious and practical remark, though they are political,—as indeed are many parts of the volume. The French revolution, with the horrid atrocities which have occurred in many periods of it, the infidelity and atheism said to be prevalent not only in that country but in different parts of

Europe, together with other systems or principles, are topics here introduced: but we do not observe that their causes, such as the ignorance, superstition, bigotry, and cruelty of popery and tyranny, &c. are brought into view. The English establishment, however, secures the preacher's warmest admiration. 'If (says he) it may be asked, where are we to look for pure and undefiled religion; is it within the pale of the established church?—Most assuredly there, if any where.' —Again, 'as the happiest climate in the world lies between the extremes of heat and cold, so also in religion is there a temperate zone, equally distant from the fervor of enthusiasm, and the coldness of infidelity. In this temperature is situated the church of England, thus established in the remotest point from every extreme.' Partiality itself, however, must acknowledge that whatever is human must be imperfect, and will admit of being improved. The Bœotian rustic was able to discern an essential defect in the admired production of the antient Grecian artist. Considerations of this kind are also calculated to teach us candour and moderation, both in our praise and our dispraise.—It is, at the least, questionable whether what this sensible author advances, p. 84, 85, concerning man's ability to reform himself, be in strict unison with the articles and homilies of our church.

The sermon on the parable of *The Prodigal* appears to us excellent, both in the affecting description of the wild and thoughtless youth, and in its application to the duties of parents and children. In like terms we should speak of the discourse on the *Works of Nature*, of that on the duty of loving our enemies, &c.: but it becomes necessary for us to conclude this brief notice of the volume, by observing that the last discourse is an apology for *decorating Places of Public Worship;* which is said to have been occasioned by the present of a painted window from Joseph Scott, Esq. to the chapel of Great Barr. We may be permitted to ask, whether there be not some danger that these ornaments should divert the attention of the congregation from the service, and thus greatly interrupt, if not destroy, that devotion and edification which are the great objects of our attendance on public worship?

Hi.

Art. 32. *An Inquiry into the Necessity, Justice, and Policy of a Commutation of Tithes.* By Morgan Cove, LL. B. Prebendary of Hereford, and Rector of Eaton-Bishop, Herefordshire. 8vo. pp. 121. 3s. Rivingtons, &c. 1800.

The subject of tithes has of late been much agitated; and it seems to be a prevailing opinion that the state of agriculture, and more especially the new circumstances of Europe, will make some alteration necessary respecting them in this country. How far this opinion is well founded is a matter which requires much deliberation, since the interest and comfort of a most respectable and useful part of the community are concerned. Mr. Cove is a strenuous and able advocate for the present system; and, as we wish that the subject may obtain the most ample consideration, so that nothing may be attempted with rashness, or carried into execution with injustice, we recommend his Inquiry to the attention of the public. He contends that the abolition or commutation of tythes is not necessary, nor just, nor politic:

politic:—that 'neither the rights of the clergy as tithe-holders, nor their general conduct in the exercise of those rights, are or have been unfriendly to agricultural pursuits:—that no immediate interest of the land-occupier, nor future prudential interest of the land-proprietor, can sanction an alteration in the present property or form of tithes;'—that even a corn rent in lieu of tithes is liable to many objections (among which he *ingeniously* states 'the possibility of introducing a different species of bread-corn, or a substitute for bread);' —and that, in short, as an alteration in the property of the clergy may tend to disturb all landed property, it is wise in the state to abstain from all experiments with it.

While, however, Mr. Cove resists all commutation of tithes, he allows the expediency of an act of parliament to remove the whole mass of objected grievances; the substance of which act should be to enable all tithe-holders to lease their tithes, for any term commensurate with the lease of an estate, not exceeding twenty-one years, at a fixed annual rent.—As far as such an act tended to exclude the practice of taking tithes in kind, it would be a sort of commutation; and the farmer, or tenant, would consider the two sums paid to the landlord and to the tithe-owner as forming, together, the whole of his rent: in which view, the demand for tithes could no more operate against improvement, than the demand for rent by the owner of the soil; for it matters not to the farmer, whether he pays a fixed sum for the privilege of occupancy, to one or to two persons.

All this argument certainly is an admission that there are great objections to taking *tithes in kind.* There are also some to which Mr. Cove has not adverted, but which, where the practice obtains, will be felt, and will become matters of complaint.

This pamphlet may be considered as a supplement to Mr. Cove's *Essay on the Revenues of the Church of England,* mentioned in our xxixth volume, N. S. p. 199. **Mooy.**

POETRY, &c.

Art. 33. *Lines on the Death of the late Sir Ralph Abercromby.* By the Author of the Conspiracy of Gowrie. 4to. 1s. Bell, Oxford Street.

Poets who attempt the praise of distinguished men frequently acquire as well as confer immortality; for, when the eulogy is well constructed, the fame of the bard is united with that of the hero, and together they glide down the stream of time. Whether the author of the present tribute to the memory of our illustrious commander in Egypt, who nobly fell in the cause of his country, was actuated by ambition of this kind, it is not for us to decide: but if such were any part of his aim, we shall not endeavour to obstruct it by severity of criticism: rather allowing our respect for the object of his verse to be his shield on the present occasion. Let the following lines speak for themselves:

'Thee, Veteran, thee, each glist'ning eye deplores,
Thee, Veteran Chief, bewail our sea-girt shores;
From side to side of this imperial isle
Thee Valour names with melancholy smile;

Borne o'er the wave, Fame, murmuring as she flies,
Thee, ABERCROMBY, thee, records in sighs!'

An account of this author's *Conspiracy of Gowrie* may be seen in our last volume, p. 321. Moo-y.

Art. 34. *Ode to the Memory of Sir Ralph Abercromby*, and the Glorious 21st of March, 1801. By Anthony Todd Thomson. 4to. pp. 15. Edinburgh, Manners and Co. London, Trepass.

Mr. Thomson's ode contains much animated poetry, the pleasing vehicle of a variety of striking thoughts, but (like the preceding *Lines*,) very little that particularly applies, either characteristically or historically, to the truly venerable and justly lamented hero whose memory is the professed subject of the performance. It is, however, on the whole, a poem of considerable merit.—It concludes with a 'prophecy' of the happy return of peace; which, we suppose, the prophet himself little imagined to be *so near* at hand, at the moment when this performance issued from the press,—but a few days before the arrival of the *most welcome preliminaries!*

Art. 35. *The Wedding and Bedding:* or John Bull and his Bride fast asleep. A Satirical Poem. Containing an History of the Happy Pair, from their Infancy to the present Period. With Reasons for, and Means used, to accomplish their UNION. Also the Matchmakers matched, with their rueful Lamentation for the Loss of the Bride Cake. By T. Canning. 8vo. 2s. Jordan.

It is often found in books as at inns, that the *plenty of good entertainment* figures only on the outside. We suspected that this might have been the case here: but we were agreeably disappointed. Some grave irony, and far from pointless satire, are here levelled against the ex-minister and his measures; and with Hudibrastic ease the author's sentiments of the union are strongly expressed. The name of *Canning* we suppose to be assumed: but whoever the author be, he unites the power of keen reflection with that of ludicrous representation. The history and portraits of John Bull and Mrs. Erin are well sketched; and the conduct of *Brass* (Mr. P—tt) through his whole administration is wittily reprobated. The following description of the Catholics, of the Members of the Established Church, and of the Presbyterians in Ireland, is much in the manner of Butler:

'Thus from the common yoke releas'd,
They all their native bias pleas'd;
Pat sets potatoes, minds his plough,
Rears ducks, and pigs, and keeps a cow;
And next his whiskey, dearly fosters
His *aves* and his *pater nosters*;
These (lest the devil should him cozen)
He says, and reckons, by the dozen;
And, that accounts may ballance even,
A tally always keeps with heaven;
On herrings makes his Friday dinners,
And thinks all mutton eaters sinners.
Whilst John, the day he'd be most good in,
Would eat the most roast beef and pudding;

He

He pray'd but little, less he fasted,
No *next* world wish'd, while *this* world lasted
But Sandy strove to fix his thumb
On this world, and the world to come;
Was both in trade and gospel *conny* *,
Did much for God, and more for money.'

The promise in the title page, however, is not wholly fulfilled. We have only the 'wedding,' at present; which is not described as a very joyful one:

'The eager guests were now assembl'd,
The bridegroom doz'd, dame ERIN trembled;
But BRASS the nuptial rites conducted,
The bride encourag'd, BULL instructed,
And made her boy from *Castlereagh*,
His struggling Mistress *give away*:
With loathing to the ring she yielded,
Which, some have said, is Iron gilded:
The fees of course were not neglected,
No blessing else could be expected.
Thus both in one, for aye were blended,
And with amazement †, all was ended.
'To spread the news, away Fame scouted,
Dogs bark'd, and boys and beggars shouted;
Loud thundering cannons shake the ground,
Bells ring, drums beat, and trumpets sound,
'Thus, to the orient funeral pyre,
Perfum'd and deck'd in gay attire,
The victim fair is urg'd along,
Amidst the plaudits of the throng:
By custom doom'd, she yields her charms
To her dead husband's putrid arms;
Aspiring flames involve the pair,
And Ganges flashes with the glare:
Shrill cymbals clang, loud shouts arise,
And she in seeming triumph dies,'

An interlude, in lieu perhaps of the 2d part, but purporting to be a loose prospectus of it, is added. **Moo-y.**

Art. 36. *The Minstrel Youth*; a Lyrical Romance: with other Poems. By W. Case, jun. 12mo. 1s. Conder. 1801.

A very promising specimen of the young author's poetical taste and talents: we suppose him to be *young*; and if he perseveres in paying his devoirs to the muses, he may probably obtain a considerable degree of their regard and encouragement.—The pieces here submitted to the judgment of the public are various, moral, and not destitute of harmony and pathos. The poem, in three parts, intitled *The Minstrel Youth*, is the most considerable performance, and evinces

'* Knowing.'

'† The last word in the ceremony of marriage in the established church.'

the

the writer's proficiency in the Romantic lore which so strongly marks the ages of chivalry, and many of the manly old English Ballads.

Art. 37. *Il Luttuoso, ed il Gaudioso; Il Giocoso, ed il Diligente*: Poems on Music, the New Century, Sport, and Care. 12mo. pp. 90. 2s. 6d. Wright, &c.

These rhymes might have given pleasure to the author's friends in private society, but they are scarcely fit for the public eye. The writer has indeed anticipated criticism, and, in his preface, has gently reviewed them himself: but he has still left us something to do, if we were rigorously disposed to exercise our rights. We might begin by objecting to the Italian titles, not because they are Italian and the poems are in English, for which the author has Milton's authority, but for the harshness of two of the four which he has chosen. *Luttuoso* and *Gaudioso* are as unpleasant to an English ear, as any words that can be found in the Italian language. Milton, doubtless, gave his titles in Italian, (which in his time was more cultivated and better known in this country than any other foreign dialect,) because he could express with that language, in one word, an idea for which ours required two: as *Il Penseroso*, the pensive man; *l'Allegro*, the joyous man.

Some prosaic expressions, and indeed whole lines of that character, might be pointed out in every one of these little poems. We should suppose that the first has not been published hastily, because Miss *Brent* is mentioned in it as the favourite Siren of the time, who delighted this country with the strains of *Handel*; and at least 30 years have elapsed since Miss Brent flourished:—but she was not so much accustomed to warble the strains of Handel, as those of Dr. Arne, her master.—To describe this production in one sentence, we shall conclude by observing that it seems to be *dilettante* poetry, rather than that of a scribe by trade. D.r B....y.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 38. *Thoughts on Capital Punishment.* By Hugh Wade-Gery, M. A. late Fellow of Emmanuel College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

The author of this little pamphlet is an advocate for the abolition of capital punishment, in all cases except that of murder. This exception he grounds solely on the authority of the divine command, that "whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed;" and he maintains that, in no other case, can a legislature assign the punishment of death to the most atrocious crime: because, though the individual possesses power over his liberty and property, he is indued with none over his life; and therefore he can never delegate such a power to the legislator. The other arguments contained in this work are such as have been repeatedly urged: but they are here inforced in strong, correct, and elegant language. O.W.

Art. 39. *Suggestions respecting a Plan of National Education*, with Conjectures on the probable Consequences of Non-descript-Methodists and Sunday-Schools, in a Letter addressed to his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury. By the Rev. William Shaw, B. D.

B.D.F.S.A. and Rector of Chelvy, Somerset. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons. 1801.

The unfortunate dispute between Mrs. H. More, Dr. Crossman, and the Rev. Mr. Bere *, appears to have given rise to this pamphlet. The author is undoubtedly a man of ability and observation; his style is also good, and he professes himself the friend of freedom and liberality of sentiment: but how far this may co-incide with his scheme of *national education*, we do not inquire.—The '*Non-descript*' Methodist is, however, here described, as having no mark so discriminating as 'a restless anxiety to propagate *Sunday-schools*. To permit these to exist, by superintending and taking on themselves the education of the adults, as well as the children of the lower orders of the people, is tolerating (it is said) *imperium in imperio*.'—On such considerations, his Grace of Canterbury is requested to introduce a bill in parliament, to establish regular, daily, *parochial schools*. Hi.

Art. 40. *A Catalogue and detailed Account of a very valuable and curious Collection of Manuscripts (Now on Sale) collected in Hindostan*, by Samuel Guise, Esq. late Head Surgeon to the General Hospital at Surat: including all those that were procured by Monsieur Anquetil du Perron, relative to the Religion and History of the Parsees, and many which he could not procure. 4to. 2s. 6d. Bickerstaff. 1800.

To the particulars enumerated in this very curious catalogue, the following advertisement is prefixed:

'This collection was made at Surat, from the year 1788 till the end of 1795, with great trouble and expence. It is unnecessary to observe, that in any country where the art of printing has not been introduced, books will be multiplied slowly; and, there being no booksellers, or particular scribes, at Surat, the opportunities to purchase manuscripts of any kind, rarely occur; and they are always sold very dear. We learn from Mandelsloe, that the Emperor Ackbar had a library of 24,000 volumes, valued at thirty-two lacs, thirty-one thousand eight hundred and sixty-five crowns; about thirty-four pounds sterling each volume. Among the Sanscrit Manuscripts, the Mahabarrat *is very* valuable: a translation of that work in Persian, made during the reign of the Emperor Ackbar, cost General Carnac a thousand rupees, as the collector of the MSS. in the present Catalogue was informed by that gentleman. It is to be observed, that there are no Pehlavic manuscripts in England besides those in this collection; and, to the best of our information, not more than four or five in Zend.

'Of this collection, however rich in Arabick and Persian works of merit, the chief value consists in the numerous *Zend* and *Pehlavi* MSS. treating of the antient Religion and History of the *Parsees*, or Disciples of the celebrated Zoroaster, many of which were purchased, at a very considerable expence, from the Widow of *Darab*, who had been in the study of those languages, the Preceptor of *M. Anquetil du*

* We are glad to learn, by the public prints, that this controversy is now terminated.

Perron;

Perron; and some of the manuscripts are such as this inquisitive Frenchman found it impossible to procure.

'The writings of Zoroaster, which still remain, are all to be found in this collection; they are very curious, and speak of the Creation of the Universe, of the Terrestrial Paradise, and of the Dispersion of Mankind: they contain also an Account of the Origin of Evil, Moral, and Material; and also Predictions, with respect to the latter Times; several Particulars relating to the End of the World, and the Resurrection; some excellent Moral Precepts; and a very extensive Ceremonial Code.'

We are sorry that we had not an earlier opportunity of mentioning so rare a publication as the present: but, as we are not informed that the extraordinary collection, to which it relates, has yet been sold, we are perhaps still in time for the information of those who may have *curiosity* and *ability* sufficient to become purchasers. Those who have the management of public libraries will, probably, be most attentive to the offer here made to the *British* literati.

Art. 41. *The Spirit of the Public Journals.* Being an impartial Selection of the most exquisite Essays and Jeux d'Esprit, principally Prose, that appear in the Newspapers and other Publications. With Explanatory Notes. Vols. III. and IV. 12mo. pp. 396. each. 12s. Boards. Ridgway.

If the age possesses any wit and genius, and if the editor be endowed with any judgment and taste, collections of this kind must be extremely amusing; as they bring together, within the compass of a few pages, the sprightly sallies which have been scattered through the public prints during the course of the respective years. Of the first two volumes of the present work, we hinted our opinion in M. R. vol. xxxi. p. 222, which will also serve for those that are now before us. Many amusing little pieces in prose and verse are here selected; and among others we find, in vol. iv. p. 345, the beautiful poem on *the Passage of the Mountain of St. Gothard*, by Georgiana, Duchess of Devonshire, said to be here first published complete, and under sanction.

The editor continues to lament the small number of witty articles on what is called the ministerial side; which circumstance, however, he assures his readers, has not arisen from any partiality in his own mind, but from the barrenness of the public journals in this respect; and in order to lessen the appearance of political bias, he has made the contents of the present volumes more miscellaneous than the former. We approve this enlargement of the original plan; and while we express our gratitude for the amusement which this collection has afforded us, we would recommend it to the editor to be careful not to print the same composition twice; (an instance of which occurs in these volumes;) not to be too easily pleased in making his future selections; and to content himself with a thin volume of choice pieces, in preference to a thick one crowded with mediocrity.

If, at the end of each annual selection, a brief chronological table of the principal occurrences of the year were subjoined, the value of the work would be considerably enhanced.

Moo-y.

Art.

Art. 42. *Kearsley's Traveller's entertaining Guide through Great Britain;* or a Description of the *Great* and principal *Cross* Roads; marking the Distances of Places from London, and from each other: with a concise Topographical History of the Cities, Towns, Chief Villages, Antiquities, Seats, &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Kearsley. 1801.

We have had a variety of compilements of this kind, which have all respectively met with acceptance in their day: but *this* publication will doubtless be deemed the best, as being the latest, and coming down to the present time. The revolutions of the last fifty years have produced considerable alterations in the general face of the country, and great improvements in particular parts, especially in our large manufacturing and commercial towns; most of which, if not all, are here duly noticed. On these accounts, we cannot but agree with the attentive Compiler when he observes, (in his preface,) that 'those who travel on business, those who visit watering-places, those who ramble into Wales, or who visit the Lakes, or who traverse the less cultivated tracts of the North, will find their time agreeably beguiled by making this volume the companion of their Travels.'

A Map of England and Wales is prefixed to this work; which should have been announced to our readers in time for their summer tours, but accident has delayed the article.

Art. 43. *Observations on a late Publication,* intitled a Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis, by P. Colquhoun, Esq. By a Citizen of London: but no Magistrate. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds.

The author of the Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis * is here accused of having magnified irregularities into offences deserving severe punishment; of having created unnecessary alarm in the minds of the timid, by the public exhibition and classification of crimes, and thus rendering men more suspicious of each other; of endeavouring to increase the discretionary powers of Magistrates; of promulgating maxims which are deficient in consideration for the distressed part of the community; and of using hard expressions, such as disapproving "the false mercy of juries."—We cannot enter into an examination of the justice or injustice of these charges: but we may observe that the present author has not been sparing in his attack, which he has conducted with a degree of rough humour, and sometimes with close reasoning.

To the complaints of the indulgences of the poor, this writer opposes the luxuriousness of the wealthy; which appears to be in a full proportion to the difference of their circumstances. The subject, however, to which he has given most attention, is the danger which he apprehends for the chartered rights of the city of London, from the endeavour to introduce there the authority of the Police Magistrates. 'No one,' he says, 'can doubt that great and numerous offences abound in this great city, because these are the natural consequences of an encreased population and an enlarged commerce: but instead of considering these evils in the abstract as prodigiously enormous, it is necessary for us to view them in *connec-*

* See M. Rev. vol. xx, N. S. p. 408. and vol. xxxii. p. 349.

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tion with the *magnitude of the place* where they exist, and as formed out of that great spring in which we so much boast.' As the government of the city is now established, he thinks its magistrates are most likely to be men of uncorrupt hands and unbiassed minds.—'There are but few places where judicial powers are executed with equal integrity or more ability; oftentimes acquired by a long local residence: their advanced situation, and the great trust reposed in them, arising from their respectability, and the esteem in which they are held by their fellow-citizens.'

We participate in this author's respect for the rights of the city of London; and we should be equally concerned to see its independence abridged. What other part of the world can produce so large and busy a collection of people, within so small a compass, governed so much to their own satisfaction, and living in so regular, peaceable, and contented a manner?

Capt. B....y.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 44. *The Heinousness of the Sin of Wilful Murder.* Preached in the Parish Churches of Staple and Bickenhall, Somerset, 7th April 1799, on Occasion of the Execution of Richard Williams for the Murder of Thomas Laver. By the Rev. Charles Toogood. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

The appointed ministers of religion, if they follow the example of Christ, will adapt their addresses to circumstances; and when any peculiarly awful and striking event occurs, they must feel it to be their duty to *speak a word in season.* Under this impression, Mr. Toogood has no doubt acted on the solemn occasion of this discourse; and, after the evident pains which he has taken in its composition, he is intitled to the thanks of the neighbourhood in which the murder was committed, and to those of the public. He has treated the subject in a very clear, judicious, and impressive manner; and though murder is a crime against which *Christian* congregations need not, in general, to be cautioned, there are few who may not derive advantage from Mr. T.'s discussion; since it evinces the importance of the fear of God, and of self-government, in restraining us from a course of sin, which may terminate in the most heinous offences. *Nemo repentè fuit turpissimus.*

At the conclusion, Mr. T. has introduced, with some address, a new comment on the prayer in the Litany against sudden death:

'Let us therefore be continually upon our guard against the snares of sin. Let the reflections, which I have suggested, be frequently in our minds, and suffered to have their proper influence upon our conduct, and then the day of our departure out of this world will never "come upon us unawares." Nevertheless, as death is naturally terrible, and this life is the time which God hath granted us to prepare by his grace for a better, we may very rationally, and let us now devoutly, beseech him, in the words of our Church, to deliver us, as from "lightning and tempest; from plague, pestilence, and famine;" so likewise "from *Murder*;" from that untimely and sudden death, when, struggling to no purpose, convulsed and agonizing under the knife of some merciless ruffian, we are not only cut

off

off in a moment from all the blessings of *this* world, but from the time and means also of making preparation for *another;* cut off, perhaps, while our repentance is yet imperfect, and in our most unthinking hour, and thus sent to our last awful account, with our sins fresh and heavy upon us. A most affecting circumstance, and beyond expression terrible!'

An Appendix contains an affecting account of the murder of the unfortunate Thomas Laver; a labouring man, who was known to have laudably saved a little store of money as a provision for old age, which, fearing to trust any one with it, he generally carried in his pocket.—Some reflections are cast on the Jury for their acquittal of Williams's accomplice *James Podger*; who appears, by the declaration of Williams, at the gallows, to have been fully as deep in the horrid guilt as himself. We recommend to all jurymen this lesson from a sensible and conscientious clergyman.

Moo-y.

Art. 45. *A Practical Sermon on the Nature of Public Worship.* By Thomas Sanders, A. B. of Christ Church, Oxford. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

After having inculcated the necessity of spiritual devotion, from John iv. 24. this author proceeds to a consideration of the component parts of the Church service; to which he exhorts the members of the national communion to attend with seriousness and piety. The Litany is most warmly recommended; and even the damnatory clauses of the Athanasian Creed are said to be authorized by the express language of Christ. We make no remark on this hackneyed subject: but, if, as Mr. S. observes in p. 18. the Apostle's Creed contains 'an *entire* summary of the Christian Faith,' the Athanasian Creed, in as much as it differs from it, is unnecessary, if not suspicious. The pronunciation of the *Absolution* by the minister is justified, on the ground that God has given to the sacred order *the ministry of reconciliation:* but Mr. S. should have remembered that *the ministry of reconciliation*, of which Paul speaks, does not consist in undertaking to reconcile sinners to God, but in exhorting them *to be* reconciled unto God.—We join with Mr. S. in his praise of the *General Thanksgiving*, which is unquestionably the best devotional composition in the whole Liturgy.

Many judicious remarks occur in this discourse; which, as the production of a young man in Deacon's orders, must be considered as a sure indication of ability; and we trust that this circumstance, in addition to an amiable character, will insure him all the patronage which he desires.

D.o

Art. 46. *Preached at the Octagon Chapel in Norwich, Aug.* 13, 1801, for the Benefit of the Norfolk and Norwich Hospital. By Pendlebury Houghton. 8vo. 1s. Johnson, &c.

This discourse is well adapted to the occasion on which it was delivered from the pulpit by the rev. author; who seems to have been animated by the true spirit of benevolence and Christian charity towards those who, of all human beings, stand in greatest need of such assistance. Most of his readers, we have no doubt, will feel themselves particularly obliged to him for his insertion (in a *note*,) of the

interesting

interesting story * of *Fabiola*, a noble Roman lady, who lived in the 4th century; and who was the first founder of an *Infirmary*, for the benefit of those who were at once affected by disease and poverty.—The particulars will probably be new, as well as *edifying*, to many; and indeed such instances of human benevolence have seldom been known in the world.

Art. 47. *The Name of the Lord, great among the Gentiles.* By John Evans, A. M. Master of a Seminary for a limited number of Pupils, Pullin's-row, Islington. 8vo. 6d. Symonds. 1801.

This discourse is said to have been preached at the re-opening of the General-baptist Meeting-house in Deptford, when it had been shut up for repairs. After other reflections, the fulfilment of Malachi's prediction, chap. i. ver. 11. is farther illustrated by the early introduction of Christianity to Great Britain, together with the marvellous and happy alteration which it effected. How early the light of heavenly truth reached this isle, it is not now easy to determine: but that the blessing has been for many ages enjoyed is most certain; and that, when policy and priestcraft had greatly obscured its radiance, it has been in a great degree revived and relumed, is a subject of joy and gratitude. Happy are those who learn and practise the lessons of resignation and contentment, which this divine revelation inculcates; and which are said to have been displayed in the conduct of an Italian bishop, with some account of whom this sermon is concluded. Hi.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The letter from our old Correspondent at Fochabers was duly received, and we are perfectly disposed to take it (as he requests) 'in good part.' It certainly is alike our duty and our wish to adapt the pages of the Monthly Review to the taste and pursuits of its different readers; and we have been induced to believe, from the reception with which the public has so long honoured us, that our endeavours have not been unsuccessful. We shall always listen, however, with readiness and attention, to the suggestions of so respectable a Correspondent as Dr. G.; though he will allow us to add that we do not forget the well-known fable of *the Old Man, his Son, and the Ass.*

Our friend *Longinus* seems to have been himself somewhat under the influence of that terrible disease, the *cacoethes scribendi*, the effect of which on others he laments. The old fable, above mentioned, may be recommended to this gentleman's consideration. In matters merely of taste and opinion, every one must judge for himself.

B×B and B×W are received, and will in course meet with due attention, when opportunity occurs.

Mr. Tate's and Mr. Howe's letters are just arrived.

☞ In the last APPENDIX, p. 459. l. 26, 27. for 'and a presented,' r. and *he* presented.—P. 524. l. 5. put a semicolon after 'was.'—P. 535. l. 17. for '(*Bistonry*),' r. (*Bistoury*).—P. 536. l. 14. for '*Wooly and*,' read, *Wool, and.*

* Recorded by *Jerom*, who styles her the glory of the Christians.